

# English loanwords in electronic media discourse in Ukraine

Khrystyna Petryshyn



Master thesis presented to the Department of Literature, Area  
Studies and European Language

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

November 2014

# **English loanwords in electronic media discourse in Ukraine (on the basis of Vysoky Zamok, Ukraïns'ka Pravda and Donbass)**

© Khrysytyna Petryshyn

2014

English loanwords in electronic media discourse in Ukraine

<http://www.duo.uio.no/>

Print: Reprosentralen, University of Oslo

# Acknowledgements

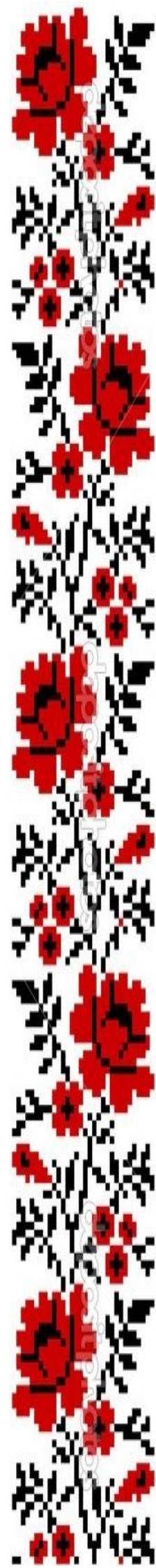
First of all, I would like to express a special gratitude to my supervisor, **Hildegunn Dirdal**, for her help and guidance over the whole period of writing the thesis. Thank you for invaluable suggestions and constructive feedback. You have set an example of excellence as a mentor, instructor and adviser.

In particular, I wish to thank my close friends who assisted me with this academic study, namely **Oxana** and **Lesya Bilets'ka**, **Oxana Kuspys'** and **Lesya Seniv**. I am indebted to you for your great support, help and constant encouragement. Thank you for just being part of my life.

I am also grateful to my **dear family** for their love and strength they give to me. Thank you for being always with me despite the distance.

*To those who fight to defend freedom, National unity and the Ukrainian language...  
You'll never be forgotten...*

**(In memory of the events in Ukraine in 2013-2014)**



# Abstract

This study explores the use of new English loanwords in electronic media in Ukraine. The division of the country according to language preferences is tightly connected with the divergence of political views, namely a pro-Western orientation in the Ukrainian-speaking West and pro-Russian tendencies in the Russian-speaking East, which could contribute to a greater influence of English on one language and less on the other. The main research question the thesis aims to answer is a higher frequency of recent loanwords in the Ukrainian language in comparison to Russian.

The study is based on material from three Ukrainian newspapers which represent different regions of the country, target different audiences and are written in the two different languages.

Contrary to the hypothesis, Ukrainian does not show a higher influx of anglicisms than Russian. Based on the analysis of loanwords from different perspectives, namely degrees of integration and their necessity in the languages, the study reveals that the language is not the key factor which determines the use of English borrowings in the media discourse, but the type of the media itself.

# Contents

Acknowledgements .....	III
Abstract .....	V
Contents.....	VI
Introduction .....	1
1    Loanwords .....	4
1.1    Definition.....	4
1.2    Reasons for borrowing.....	6
1.3    Motives for using borrowings.....	8
1.4    Classification of loanwords .....	9
1.5    Principles of adaptation in the recipient language .....	13
2    English as a lingua franca.....	16
2.1    From the receiving language to the source language .....	18
2.2    Background for the spread of English .....	20
2.3    Causes for the popularity of English .....	22
2.4    Who needs English? .....	24
2.5    The role of mass media in the spread of English elements .....	25
2.6    Views on English as a global language .....	26
3    The linguistic situation in Ukraine .....	30
3.1    A short historical outline of Ukrainian and Russian.....	30
3.2    Russian influence: the results of the Russification .....	33
3.3    Ukrainian and Russian in the process of globalization: the impact of English .....	38
3.4    The use of anglicisms in the language of Ukrainian mass media.....	39
3.5    Views towards the use of loanwords in Ukrainian .....	41
4    Method .....	44
4.1    Hypothesis and research questions .....	44
4.2    Study material.....	47
4.3    Method.....	52
5    Results .....	56
5.1    Numbers of old and new loanwords in the newspapers .....	56
5.2    Comparison of numbers of new loanwords in terms of word forms, lexemes and standard forms .....	59

5.3	Levels of integration.....	62
5.4	Degrees of necessity .....	66
5.5	Shared loanwords .....	69
	Conclusion and ideas for further research.....	76
	References .....	80





# Introduction

Linguists have always been interested in the evolution of lexical systems, which exhibit several lexico-semantic processes. One of these processes, borrowing, is in the focus of the current study which is investigated on the basis of Ukrainian online media.

At the end of the twentieth and the beginning of the twenty-first century, Ukraine experiences a period characterized by an intensification of its relationships with the predominantly English-speaking world, which also brings with it lexical borrowing. The use of words with foreign origin becomes more and more conspicuous in the speech of Ukrainians, just like it does for speakers of nearly any modern language. The influx of such words has a number of reasons, first of all the process of globalization, where English plays the major role.

However, there are reasons to believe that not all parts of the country should be equally affected. Ukraine is an unofficially bilingual country with two dominant languages, Ukrainian and Russian. The division of Ukraine into a Ukrainian-speaking West and a Russian-speaking East goes together with a clash of political opinions and cultural differences. There is movement in two opposite directions, in which the Western part of Ukraine tends to pursue integration with the European Union and the East attempts to switch to the Russian-led Eurasian Economic Union. This situation provides different language learning options for Ukrainians: global English, as the key to new opportunities, or Soviet Russian, as a heritage language which already prevails in the country. I assume that such a situation may result in varying degrees of English influence on the two languages with a larger impact on Ukrainian and less on Russian.

Research has been conducted on the present lexical contribution of English to Ukrainian and Russian, but only few have attempted to compare borrowing in the two languages. This thesis aims to find out which of the languages is more vulnerable to the influence of English. This is done by investigating the use of new English loanwords in three Ukrainian online newspapers which represent three different regions of Ukraine (West, Center and East), target different audiences (serious vs. middle-market editions) and are written in two different languages:

Vysoky Zamok (a Ukrainian-language newspaper in West Ukraine), Ukraïns'ka<sup>1</sup> Pravda (a Central newspaper edited in Russian and Ukrainian), and Donbass (a Russian-language edition in East Ukraine). Due to time limits, the research is limited to articles on Culture and Entertainment, from 1 to 30 November 2013.

The questions I am going to investigate concern, primarily, the frequency of the use of anglicisms in Ukrainian and Russian, their acceptance into these two languages and the stages of integration, as well as consideration of motives behind their usage in the Ukrainian media. Answers to these research questions will help me to find out whether there are any similarities or differences in the process of borrowing and assimilation in Ukrainian and Russian, and whether any of them has a higher rate of borrowings.

My hypothesis is that there will be a lower frequency of new loanwords in the Russian language in comparison to Ukrainian.

One thing that makes this study important is its actuality. Currently, several Ukrainian linguists, as well as other citizens, express serious concerns about the strong intrusion of borrowings, which may lead to the disappearance of Ukrainian words. This thesis may contribute facts to this debate.

The language of the Ukrainian mass media, like the media in any other country, reflects all aspects of human life. Any change in society, whether political, economic or cultural, immediately affects the language of the media. The findings of the study may thus also contribute to an understanding of what is happening in society.

Loanwords which have entered the lexicons of Ukrainian and Russian in the beginning of the twenty-first century are still not sufficiently explored. The lack of research on anglicisms in the language of Ukrainian Internet media and the lexico-semantic processes connected with the appearance of new items makes this research a valuable contribution.

Even though the study is limited to one-month material which covers only the domain of Culture and Entertainment and, therefore, cannot automatically generalize into the impact of

---

<sup>1</sup> In transliteration from Ukrainian into English, I have used the table of transliteration from Cyrillic into Latin according to Resolution no. 55 of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, January 27, 2010. In my study, however, I preferred to use the Ukrainian phoneme *ï* [ji] in its original form. The Ukrainian soft sign *ь* and the apostrophe is rendered using a single mark “'” in the words. This is done with the purpose of transliterating various Ukrainian proper names exactly from Ukrainian rather than Russian, for example L'viv (Ukr.) in place of Lvov (Rus.), Kyïv (Ukr.) instead of Kiev (Rus.).

English on Ukrainian and Russian on the whole, it is the first attempt to explore which of the two Slavic languages is more receptive and seems to have a need of additional lexical units in its word stock. The findings of the given study can contribute to a better understanding of issues of loanwords in the Ukrainian context, and serve as a basis for new predictions and further research.

The thesis consists of five parts. The first chapter provides an explanation of the concept of loanword, and discusses reasons and motives for the use of loanwords, as well as principles for their function. Chapter two presents a comprehensive review of English as a global language, whereas the third chapter deals mostly with the linguistic situation in Ukraine. These chapters include a consideration of the historical backgrounds of the three languages: English, Ukrainian and Russian, and illustrate the influence of the former one on the two latter. Chapter four focuses on hypotheses and methods used in the study. The analysis of the English impact on the two Slavic languages and discussions of the findings are presented in chapter five. This is followed by a conclusion and suggestions for further investigation.

# 1 Loanwords

Before defining what a loanword actually is and what role it plays in the vocabulary of a language, it is useful to become familiar with the concept of *etymology*. Jackson and Zé Amvela's definition of etymology is rather short and precise: it is "the study of the whole history of words" (2007, p. 6). The study of etymology investigates the origin and historical development of a word, its initial meaning and content, its earliest known use as well as its co-relations with other counterparts in the language. According to the etymology of words, the vocabulary of a language may be divided into two main groups: *native* (indigenous) lexical items and *foreign* elements (loanwords). Haspelmath and Tadmor state that there is hardly ever language in the world which is "entirely devoid of loanwords" (2009, p. 55).

The language is constantly found in the process of development and evolution. Its change has both internal and external causes (Barber 1964, p. 1). The latter presupposes interactions between a language and other languages, during which they get influenced by one another. The natural result of this contact is the exchange of words between languages, i.e. borrowing of words from one language to another and vice versa. Such a process may lead to linguistic variation in the native speakers' discourse, and it may also influence the language as such.

## 1.1 Definition

The process of word borrowing is a consequence of the contact between two languages. Haugen (1950, p. 212) defines the process of borrowing as "the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another" one. Cherniak interprets borrowing as a process in which one language adopts an element from another language (2002, p. 24). A similar definition is found in Jackson and Zé Amvela's work, where they present borrowing as the process, in which speakers imitate a word from a foreign language and adapt it to their own language (2007, p. 38). The result of borrowing is called a *loanword*, a word which entered the lexicon of a target language at some point in its history (Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009, p. 36). Another way of expressing the idea of English borrowing is *anglicism*, synonymously used by some linguists. According to Görlach (2003, p. 1) and Furiassi et al. (2012, p. 5) an anglicism is a word or an idiom which is recognized as English in its form (spelling, pronunciation, morphology or at least one of them), but is accepted as a new item in the receiving language vocabulary.

A loanword is a word adopted by the speakers of one language, called *recipient language* (Haspelmath and Tadmor, 2009), *absorbing language* (Rosenhouse and Kowner, 2008), *receiving language* (Jackson and Zé Amvela, 2007), *target language* (Furiassi *et al.*), *borrowing language* (Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2006) or *replica language* (Sasse, 1992) from a different language, also known as *source language* (Croft, 2000), *donor language* (Ehret, 2011; Zawawi, 1979) or *model language* (Haugen, 1950; Bator, 2010).

According to Kemmer, "loan" and "borrowing" are just metaphors, as far as there is neither actual "lending" of words from a recipient language to another nor their "returning" to the source language (Kemmer, 2013). When borrowing lexical units, "the donor language does not actually lose the borrowed word" (Hock and Joseph 1996, p. 253). Furthermore, the more loanwords are found in the context of another language, the greater is the power and prestige of the very language they originally came from. It is worth mentioning that foreign words cannot be called loanwords until they become frequently used by the main part of the recipient society. This idea is also supported by Hoffmann who states that "every foreign word (which has been integrated into the recipient language) will [finally] become a loanword" (2011, p. 137). If these words come into wide usage, they become conventionalized, or adopted.

The words borrowed and used for a long time in a particular language, become more and more similar to the native words of this language. Some of the loanwords (the main part of them) are modified according to the system of the source language to such an extent that it is sometimes difficult to differentiate between an old borrowing and a native word.

Sometimes the use of borrowings is identified with code-switching. Still the two processes are not the same. Myers-Scotton describes the difference between them on the basis that well-established borrowings are integrated into the word order of the recipient language, whilst code-switching occurrences follow the word order of the donor language (2006, p. 254). The linguist states that the code-switching phenomenon is more observed in bilingual and multilingual societies, and apparently is a characteristic manner of one's expression, whereas borrowing is typical of any language and is described as a process of lexical development. However, in case code-switching units are used frequently in a language, they can gain the status of loanwords.

As we have seen, the terms *borrowing*, *loan* and *loanword* are quite synonymous in their meaning, denoting all lexical items which entered the lexical system of the receiving language in the process of its formation. Sometimes they indicate old phenomena in the language, which are difficult to recognize from native items, and can be defined only etymologically. The term *anglicism* often has a negative connotation. It implies a newly borrowed word form English which enters other language vocabularies, in our case Russian and Ukrainian, usually without any specific reason for that. In order to avoid monotony in the text, and because I will deal with new loans, all four terms will be used interchangeably.

## 1.2 Reasons for borrowing

The motives for borrowing words from one language to another are numerous and various in character. For instance, Katamba asserts that “to adopt a word [is much easier] rather than to make up an original one from nothing” (2005, p. 138-139). Danesi and Rocci also arrived at the similar conclusion that borrowing is “a practical strategy” for enriching language vocabulary instead of creating new words for new notions as it takes much less cognitive effort (2009, p. 161).

The main reason for borrowing on which the most linguists agree is the need of “filling conceptual gaps” in the absorbing language (Danesi and Rocci 2009, p. 161; Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 284). Nonetheless, scholars give a number of other reasons for the transmission of foreign elements into the donor language. These can be both linguistic and extralinguistic. To make it more explicit, I illustrate the use of borrowings with examples found in Ukrainian.

Among the linguistic factors which explain the phenomenon of borrowing are:

- the necessity of naming new objects, concepts or processes, especially from the fields of science, technology, etc., called “lexical innovation” (Weinreich 1953, p. 56), e.g. *міксер* [mikser] < *mixer*, *дизайн* [dyzajn] < *design*;
- close contact in multilingual situations (Bator 2010, p. 41), e.g. communication with Romanian native speakers residing in the North-West of Ukraine contribute to the extension of Ukrainian vocabulary with Romanian loanwords;

- the need for synonyms, new means of expression (Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 282; Bator 2010, p. 41), or the low usage of native words in the language, e.g. (Ukr.) *образ* [obraz] - *імідж* [imidzh] < image, (Ukr.) *стрічка* [stritchka] – *фільм* [fil'm] < *film*;
- “brevity as language economization” (Pfitzner (1978) cited in Gentsch 2005, p. 8; Krysin 2008, p. 21; Styshov, 2011), the preference of *one* foreign word to a *two-* or *three-*word equivalent in the donor language, reinforced by the morphological simplicity of English (Lehnert (1986), cited in Hoffmann 2011, p. 131), e.g. *преферувати* [preferuvaty] instead of authentic *надавати перевагу* [nadavaty perevagu], *вважати за краще* [vvazhaty za krashche]; *комп'ютер* [kompjuter] < *computer* instead of *електронна обчислювальна машина* [obchysljuval'na mashyna];
- the question of prestige: the use of English loanwords in other language contexts becomes more frequent since they sound new, sophisticated, modish, different, or erudite (Taylor and Taylor 1995, p. 314; Daulton 2008, p. 39; Bator 2010, p. 41; Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009, p. 48), and may be considered a result of the “intellectualization” of the society (Styshov, 2011), e.g. *менеджер* [menedzher] < *manager*; *аккаунт* [akaunt] < *account*;
- the need for words with emotional colouring (Johansson and Graedler 2002, p. 130; Bator 2010, p. 41), e.g. *шок!* [shok] *shock!*, *вай!* [vau] < *wow!*;
- the matter of fashion and popularity, “urban speech habits” (Yelenevskaya, 2008, p. 115) e.g. *драйв* [drajv] < *drive*, *лавстори* [lavstori] < *love story*, *хепіенд* [hepiend] < *happy end*;
- play with the language (Johansson and Graedler 2002, p. 129)
- unfavourable associations of native words (Bator 2010, p. 41; Krysin 2008, p. 51)
- liberalization of norms of literary language (Styshov 2008: 277).

Hock and Joseph emphasize that the chief motivation for borrowing is really a *need*. Nonetheless, it cannot justify the appearance of all the borrowings found in a language. The reason for borrowing new lexical items can also be “prestige”, as a result of the authority of a

country or a society, usually by demonstrating and promoting its prestigious standard of life. The use of loanwords is aimed, for example, to show a speaker's understanding and familiarity with the recent and prestigious pieces of literature written in the English language. The linguists state, however, that the difference between "need" and "prestige" is not that huge: "if something is prestigious, we may feel a need to imitate and borrow it" (1996, p. 271-272).

As mentioned above, not all the reasons for word borrowing are purely linguistic. The most significant extralinguistic cause is probably political, cultural, religious or economic dominance of one language over another (Bator 2010, p. 41). For example, a number of loanwords from Russian came into Ukrainian during the Soviet times, when Ukraine was a part of the Soviet Union. Rosenhouse and Kowner (2008, p. 287) also take into consideration some other possible extralinguistic factors that essentially may contribute to the borrowing of words and their integration. By these factors the linguists mean a persistent learning of English at school, free availability of English-speaking sources through reading English books and newspapers, watching English programmes and films, frequent use of the Internet and contact with other (foreign) people, as well as an opportunity to travel the world and communicate in English as a *lingua franca*.

### **1.3 Motives for using borrowings**

In the previous section we were analyzing linguistic and extralinguistic factors which could explain the reasons for borrowing of a word from one language and its transferring into another. It revealed that the main reason for borrowing was a *need* to fill in a lexical gap. But what are the motives of using alternative loanwords when having equivalents in the target language?

Investigating the problem of English lexemes in Swedish, Seltén suggested a rather simple reason for the use of loanwords - peoples' "laziness" to translate from English to Swedish. Furthermore, this happens because Swedes may think that English words are, somehow newer and less dull than Swedish ones (1993, p. 19).

The role played by loanwords in the word stock of any language also depends on its historical aspects, as well as on the people who speak the given language. Different people have different aims in using borrowings. The main determiners of the use of loans are speakers'



level of command of English and their social rank, age, gender, level of education, which, at least partially, can explain the reasons for individual use of loanwords. Specifically frequent use of anglicisms is usually observed in the speech of educated people and young urban speakers (Görlach 2003, p. 33; Johansson and Graedler 2002, p. 128, 131).

Krysin distinguishes two motives of preference of foreign lexemes to native ones: firstly, the use of loanwords is regarded as a sign of literacy, literary style and bookish stylistic coloring; secondly, the use of borrowings may be perceived as a codified language, lack of clear understanding for the majority, seen as a sign of high erudition and proficiency, and thus, prestige. On the other hand, excessive use of loanwords may be also considered as a characteristic of pseudo-proficiency, as well as dislike of a native language, or even alien ideology (2008, p. 52-53). In such languages as Ukrainian and Russian, the trend of preferring English items to native ones caused the reaction of propagation and persuasion of the expediency of the use of English elements in Ukrainian and Russian (Styshov 2008, p. 282).

Myers-Scotton (2006, p. 212) claims that the wide use of English borrowings can be explained by “the globalizing character of English”, and its consideration as the language of power, success and modernity. However, we should not exclude the possibility that in some cases the use of loanwords can be explained by an unconscious choice of a speaker.

## 1.4 Classification of loanwords

Loanwords fall into varieties of categories and subcategories which depict different aspects of historical interactions among language speakers. Different scholars present their classifications of lexical borrowings viewed from different linguistic angles, namely *where* *why* and *how* they happen to occur.

According to Bloomfield (1935) cited in Hoffman (2011, p. 103-104), borrowings can be classified according to the location, and thus, can be of three basic categories: intimate, remote, or cultural, and dialectal borrowings.

- *Intimate* borrowing occurs between two languages situated geographically next to each other. In this case the tight interpersonal contact between the carriers of neighboring languages foresees the transfer of foreign lexical items from one language to another.

- *Remote* borrowing presupposes the transmission of loanwords into recipient language before they become assimilated in it. This kind of borrowing is very characteristic of what we have today. The dominant position of English in the world for the last decades causes direct penetration of the words into the lexical systems of other languages.
- The third type of word borrowing is *dialectal*. It describes the possibility of transferring a word from one variety (e.g. standard language) to the other variety (e.g. regional or class dialect) of the same language (see also Barber 1964, p. 101).

Another classification is suggested by Marinova, who distinguishes between two kinds of loanwords: *national* and *international*. National loanwords are those which are adapted by a separate language, whereas international ones are lexemes (mainly, Latinisms and Graecisms) that are found in at least three languages that belong to different language families (2008, p. 38-39).

The next division of loanwords is based on the aspect of reason for lexical borrowing, i.e. *why*. As we have seen above (see Section 1.2), there are many reasons for borrowing. A simple division depending on necessity has been suggested by Tappolet (1914, cited in Gardani 2013, p. 286; also Danesi and Rocci 2009, p. 162). It implies a division of loanwords into *necessary*, aimed to fill conceptual gaps, and *luxury* words, used in regards to a speaker's prestige. Necessary and luxury loanwords correspond to Haspelmath and Tadmor's (2009) and Myers-Scotton's (2006) *cultural* and *core* borrowings, or MacKenzie's (2012) *cultural* and *prestige* respectively. Despite the availability of their counterparts in the borrowing language, prestige loans enter the language due to their "conversational or stylistic effects" MacKenzie (2012, p. 31-32). This may also mean that necessary or cultural borrowings are more inclined to quicker integrate in the language. In addition to these two types, Haspelmath and Tadmor name another kind of loanwords, i.e. therapeutic borrowings. Those are chiefly used to avoid either homonymy or word taboos (2009, p. 50).

The last categorization of lexical borrowings considers the aspect of *how*, which focuses on what happens to loanwords after their occurring in another language and how they integrate in a new lexical environment. Bator states that loanwords can be either *imported* or *substituted* (2010, p. 40). Imported lexical items found in the borrowing language can be easily recognized as they preserve their original form, whereas substituted loanwords may be

slightly modified in order to become more similar to the linguistic patterns of the language they entered, e.g. *non-stop* (no modification) vs. *голкіпер* [holkiper] < *goal-keeper*.

A more detailed characterization of *how*-loanwords based on the integration process is carried out by the Russian linguists Kolesov 1998, Krysin 2004, Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade 1999 cited in Yelenskaya (2008, p. 110-117) and Marinova (2008, p. 44-66). They divide loanwords into:

- ✓ *occasional insertions*, which preserve the phonological and morphological features and the script of the source language, and therefore cannot be found in dictionaries or publications. These are usually observed in advertisements under the names of different world-known enterprises, companies, brands, import products, etc. (Marinova 2008, p. 63-66), e.g. *Venus*, *Fairy*, *Youtube*; they can also be phraseological units (*to be*, *or not to be*...);
- ✓ *barbarisms*, or *exoticisms*, or Karpilovs'ka's *neologisms* (2008, p. 27), which do not remain stable either in pronunciation, spelling, gender or number, and are used in the nominative case (*хэнд-мейд* or *хэндмейд* [hendmeid] < *hand-made*, *фэнтэзи* [fentezi] < *fantasy film*). They are also characterized by the narrow sphere of usage, weak word formation productivity (absence of derivative forms), stability of the semantic structure of the meaning, limited syntagmatic and weakened pragmatic relationships as well as the sceptical attitudes towards loanwords amongst native speakers (Marinova 2008, p. 44-46);
- ✓ *loanwords*, also *active loans* (Marinova 2008, p. 46-49), or *hybridic combinations* (Karpilovs'ka 2008, p. 27), which do not have counterparts in the target language (aspect of necessity), which lets them be easily adapted in the language, enter the systems of conjugation and declension, as well as take an active part in derivational processes, e.g. *брендовый* [brendovyj] < *brand*, *парковать* [parkovat'] < *park*, *есемеска* [esemeska] < *SMS*.

As we may see, all loanwords experience certain stages of accommodation in the receiving language. The classification chiefly coincides with what Haspelmath & Tadmor (2009) call unintegrated elements, intermediate borrowings and highly integrated items, respectively. According to Cherniak, many words at the first and the second stages of integration may be

the so-called “one-day-words”, due to existence of their equivalents in the language, and only those words which are really needed will remain (2002, p. 24).

The last typology of loanwords, which is also probably the most recognized in linguistics (Petzell, 2005; Onysko, 2007; Haspelmath and Tadmor, 2009; Bator, 2010) is suggested by Haugen. Haugen divides borrowed elements into *loanwords*, *loanblends*, and *loanshifts*, according to the degree of their morphemic substitution (1950, p. 214-215). Using Haugen's typology I would further provide some examples of recent loanwords in Ukrainian.

- loanwords denote the import of a certain word without morphemic substitution, though with possible minor phonetic substitution, e.g. *сингл* [synhl] < *single*, *органайзер* [organajzer] < *organizer*;
- loanblends (hybrids) represent the import of a word with partial substitution, the so-called “loan-based creations” (Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009, p. 39), or “hybrid compounds” (Graedler 1998, p. 48), or “word-hybrids” (Marinova 2008, p. 24-34), characterized by adopting the morphological rules of the target language, e.g. *суперзірка* [superzirka] < *superstar*, *рейтинговий* [rejtynhovyj] < *with a high rating*;
- loanshifts (calques (or translations) and semantic loans), which indicate importation with complete morphemic substitution, e.g. *Битва хорів* [bytva horiv] < *Clash of the Choirs*, *щурячі перегони* [shchurjachi perehony] < *rat race*.

Another classification of loanwords is suggested by Sasse, who distinguishes between two kinds of borrowing: positive and negative (1992, p. 64-65). Sasse asserts that negative borrowing does not necessarily mean the loss of essentials in the target language. It just replicates the dominant language patterns, like dropping of some linguistic elements which are also missing in the model language. If the dominant language is analytical (isolating) by nature and the recipient language is more synthetic (inflexional), then the latter one may tend to lose some of its morphological traits. This loss still will be compensated by the imitation of the means of the donor language.

## 1.5 Principles of adaptation in the recipient language

As a rule, lexical borrowing often leads to further alterations in the recipient language. In order to fit the new linguistic context and follow the new linguistic rules, a loanword has to overcome certain *barriers* and undergo a range of changes (Fasold & Connor-Linton 2006, p. 294; Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009, p. 42). These changes are known as the process of *adoption* (Zawawi, 1979; Rosenhouse and Kowner, 2008), *adaptation* (Daulton, 2008), *accommodation* (Kerswill, 1994), *assimilation* (Barber, 1993), *integration* (Galstyan, 2012) or *nativisation* (Katamba, 2005), denoting a partial or total conformation to the standards of the borrowing language. Probably, the process of adaptation of foreign items is a manifold long-time procedure but it is regarded as “a normal process and a sign of the vitality of the language” (Herman 2008, p. 81).

Johansson and Graedler (2002, p. 133-136) point out several kinds of integration, namely formal (integration of a word within spelling, morphology and syntax), psychological (adaptation of a lexical unit based on the speaker’s attitude toward it), social (granting a “good” (official) or “bad” (half-official) status to a loanword in the language, which plays a decisive role in its inclusion into standard dictionaries) and lexical (integration of a loan within semantics and its relation with other words in the language).

The majority of linguists (e.g. Hoffmann 2011, p. 136; Kowner and Dalot-Bul 2008, p. 266) agree that in the process of adaptation a loanword is meant to experience phonological, morphological, semantic and grammatical changes, i.e. to modify their phonetic shape, spelling and meaning according to the norms of the recipient language. In comparison to English loanwords found in such languages as French and Norwegian, those in Ukrainian, for example, undergo much more drastic changes, both in written and spoken forms. Most loanwords found in Ukrainian or Russian change their spelling after being adopted in the language. This is because the alphabet of both languages has Cyrillic letters. Another aspect which influences the process of integration is the difference between the language types of English as more analytical language and Russian/Ukrainian as more synthetic ones.

According to the works of Breiter (1997, p. 93-95), Duckworth (1979) and Cannon (1994), cited by Hoffmann (2011, p. 136), and Görlach (2003, p. 25-26), the word assimilation process is divided into four stages, which are as follows:

1. **Phonological and graphic integration** is the first stage of integration which presupposes the introduction of the newly transferred loanwords, which are often written in italics and do not resemble other words in the absorbing language, e.g. *CD*, *e-mail*, etc. The words on this stage are restricted in use;
2. **Morphological integration**, in which loanwords are accepted in the language but marked as English in their spelling, pronunciation and morphology. The words are at the point of starting their adaptation within phonology and grammar, and their spelling becomes more or less similar to that in the recipient language, though pronunciation remains foreign, e.g. (Rus.) *кеш/кешь/кэш* < *cash*;
3. **Derivational integration**, which indicates the acceptance of loanwords by most speakers. Even though loanwords on this stage become derivable, they are still not either fully assimilated or recognized as native lexical units yet;
4. **Semantic integration** is the last stage of integration on which loanwords finally become identical with indigenous items in the borrowing language, and are characterized by their daily usage by native speakers. They take part in derivative and word-formative processes, and are mainly semantic loans and internationalisms.

As we may see, lexical integration is a multi-stage process, which foresees modification of an English element and gaining new forms. Word formation, accompanied by intensive processes of derivation, is a significant means of enlarging the language lexicon, which is especially productive at the end of the twentieth and the beginning of the twenty first centuries (Styshov 2008, p. 277). A number of derivatives descended from one loan naturally strengthen the impression of the flux of loanwords in the language. Marinova (2008, p. 439), however, states that "the loanwords do not constitute the most massive layer of all new words, which enrich the language vocabulary [as it used to be thought], but neologisms formed on the basis of loanwords do". In this case, a loanword serves as a word-formation "nest" (Krysin, 2008; Styshov, 2011), for example, the word *шоу* [shou] < *show*. *Шоу* is a lexical nest for other words based on it, such as (Ukr.) *фітнес-центр* < *fitness centre*, *фітнес-категорія* < *fitness category*, *фітнес-клуб* < *fitness club*, *фітнес-програма* < *fitness programme*, etc.; (Rus.) *драйв* (n.), *драйвовый* (adj.), *драйвово* (adv.) < *drive*, etc.

Graedler (1998, p. 44) introduces a more detailed categorization of words divided into different levels. Graedler distinguishes between four levels of abstraction of foreign items: a “word-form” level, in which an English element is used in different combinations usually with native elements (e.g. *дискотанцан*, *дискотека*, *дискотанц*, etc.), presented in the form they are found in the text and also with different types of inflection (e.g. *дискотанце* [diskoklub<sub>e</sub>]); an “example-form”, which is a base form of a word stripped of its context and inflections (e.g. *дискотанц\_* [diskoklub<sub>\_</sub>]; a “lexeme” level, which usually involves word-compounds with omission of spelling differences (e.g. *дискотанц* vs. *дискотанц*); and a “standard-form” level, which presents an English element in isolation from a native element (e.g. English element *дискотанц* [disko]). The latter level of Graedler’s classification coincides with Styshov and Krysin’s term “word-nest”, due to which loanwords seem not so numerous in the borrowing language.

Beside grammatical integration in the language, loans found in constant development may face a problem on the highest level of accommodation, i.e. semantic. This kind of integration is mentioned by Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade (1999, p. 155), who state that coincidence of a loanword in all meanings and semantic components with its counterpart or an old borrowing in the receiving language happens very seldom. This may be caused by a more rapid development or variation of lexemes in the source language, and by the obsolescence of some notions in the receptor language. These factors contribute to the borrowing of many words, or sometimes to their repetitive borrowing. Krysin calls this phenomenon "secondary borrowing", where in spite of their morphological coincidence or total homonymy, a larger focus lies on the borrowing of the meaning of a word not the word itself (2008, p. 106-112). To the category of secondary borrowings, which have developed more meanings than they initially had, belong such items (found also in Ukrainian and Russian) as *disc*, *style*, *monitor*, *tandem*, *liner*, etc. That is why these words, which look traditional at a first sight, are regarded as new loans, according to a new semantic meaning they gained and or with which they are used in in the context.

According to Krysin, loanwords may undergo two other processes while integrating in the receiving language, i.e. narrowing or broadening of their meanings in comparison with the meanings they had in the source language before (2008, p. 53-54).

## 2 English as a lingua franca

The last two centuries have been characterized by the extreme rise of English on the world arena. Since the second half of the previous century it has been known as a worldwide lingua franca. There are a number of definitions of this term, but largely all of them mean the same. For instance, Todd and Hancock (1986, p. 272), as well as Seidhofer (2001), Jenkins (2007), cited by Dröschel (2011, p. 39), state that the term lingua franca was gradually extended to mean any language aimed to facilitate communication between different language speakers for none of whom it is a mother tongue. As it is also defined in Ostler's work, a lingua franca is used "to bridge language barriers" (2011, p. 4). In short, English serves, first and foremost, as a medium between people who would not be able to understand each other's language.

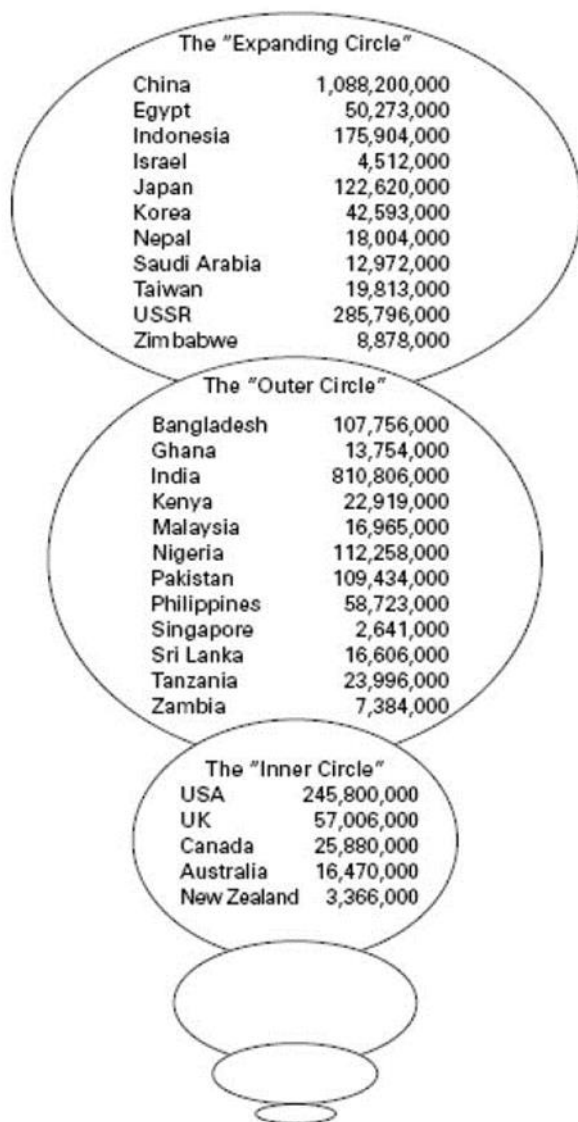
Though in some countries English may still remain a foreign language, this alone does not negate its position of the world wide spoken language. After having gained the status of lingua franca, English has naturally become one of the dominant languages in the world. It is also the most taught, read, studied and used in every country on the globe (Kachru and Nelson 2001, p. 9). Hartmann recognizes English as a "fashionable international lingua franca" (1996, p. 11), and also Graddol speaks of it as "a vehicular language for international communication" (2001, p. 27). Such applications only emphasize the global character of English these days.

Crystal (2003, p.26) declares that English is now so widely accepted and used that it cannot be longer thought of as "owned by any single nation". The number of its speakers is enormous, and it grows with each passing decade. The research carried out by Hiltunen (1993, p. 278) and Nash (1992, p. 175) shows that in 90s English was spoken as a mother tongue by about 300 million people and as an auxiliary language by 100 million. Now these numbers has greatly changed. Rudby and Saraceni (2006, p. 5), referring to Graddol (1997) and Crystal (2003), claims that due to the global diffusion of English, English native speakers are already considerably outnumbered by its non-native speakers (McKay 2006, p. 114; Dröschel 2011, p. 30-31). Rosenhouse and Kowner do not exclude the possibility that there are about 2 billion of people who communicate in English at varying levels of competence these days (2008, p. 7).



The spread of English and the number of its speakers in the world was thoroughly investigated by Kachru. The results of his research are clearly depicted in the following figure (1992, p. 356).

Figure 2.1 World Englishes classification by Kachru (1992)



According to Kachru, the inner circle contains native English-speaking countries, where it is the first (primary) language. English has reached the level of official status in the countries of the outer circle, where it plays role of the second language. The proliferation of English in these countries is usually connected with their colonial past, and is used as a second language. The expanding circle comprises those countries where English is studied and used as a foreign language.

Many linguists are persuaded that the language owes its dominant position to the development in the fields of technology and science, the extension of the political and commercial contacts between countries, as well as the progress in the entertainment industry (Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 5; Ostler 2011, p. xvi). Therefore, it is not surprising that a great number of new words (loanwords) from

the English language have penetrated into the vocabulary systems of other languages.

Having become a main supplier of new words the last decades, English (mainly American English) contributes significantly to the world's loanwords constituting a high percentage of the total number of loanwords which enter any language vocabulary nowadays, e.g. 80-90 % in Norwegian (Johansson and Graedler 2002, p. 83), 74,3 % in Russian (Marinova 2008, p.

37), 94,1 % in Japanese (Stanlaw 2004, p. 13), 85-90% in Ukrainian (Styshov, 2011, Fedorets', 1997).

It is worth mentioning, however, that not all items which come from English are etymologically English. Many new lexemes, which enter Russian and Ukrainian word stock, may originate from other, even distant, languages, and English plays the role as a mediator in this process (Koval' 2000, p. 420). Referring to other scholars, Muromtseva suggests considering a loanword not according to its primary etymological source, but rather to the source of borrowing, i.e. the language in which this word was formed and from which it penetrated to the recipient language (1985, p. 77). This is the approach that I am going to follow in the study.

## **2.1 From the receiving language to the source language**

With globalization of English, the majority of its native speakers are used to take the present status of the language for granted (Romaine 1992, p. 253). Nowadays, it is hard to imagine that English was once a language of minority.

In comparison to other languages that have tried to exclude foreign items from their vocabularies, Jackson and Zé Amvela view English as an “insatiable borrower”, which throughout its history, has welcomed hundreds of words from over 120 languages from all over the world (2007, p. 39; also Barber 1964, p. 98). Crystal records an even larger number of sources to English present-day vocabulary and states that these constitute over 350 languages (2003, p. 126).

Over time English has undergone a large range of changes due to the rich historical past of England. Different historical events caused contacts between English and a variety of other languages which later influenced its word stock. The most early and influential language happened to be Latin during the time that England was a part of the vast Roman Empire. Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007, p. 39-40) give some examples of words originating from Latin some of which the English language borrowed directly, e.g. *belt, medium, diploma, via, stadium* and indirectly, e.g. *cheese, anchor, wall*, etc.

The number of borrowings varied a lot throughout history. For instance, the percentage of foreign items in Old English was less than 3 % in comparison with their substantial increase up to 60% in Middle English where they became well established in the language system (Görlach 2003, p. 6; also Bator 2010, p. 31). Such a huge difference in the number of borrowings is explained by the coming of the authoritative French language under the Norman Conquest of England.

The French loanwords in English are easily noticed due to such affixes as *-ment* (parliament), *-tion* (information), *-able* (comfortable), *trans-* (transmission), *-ance* (ambulance), etc. The words which begin with *ch-* are also, chiefly, of French origin (e.g. *chamber*, *champion*, *chef d'oeuvre*, etc.). At present, borrowings from French are still observed in English, but they are not as numerous as in former periods (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007, p. 45-46).

Wrenn (1977, p. 49-50) notices that there are many Greek words that entered the English word stock through Latin (as far as much of the Roman civilization was initially Greek) and French (in the late Middle Ages). Examples are *paradox*, *telegram*, *democracy*, *metaphor*, *harmony*, *dilemma*, etc. Greek contributed with many affixes, which are now constituents of many modern words. These are *-ism* (atheism), *hyper-* (hypermarket), *-logy* (theology), *-gram* (cardiogram), *-phobia* (claustrophobia), *auto-* (autobiography) and many others.

The contact with Scandinavians was notably strong in the Old English period after the invasion of the British Isles by Vikings. However, since the Middle Ages this influence has significantly weakened, therefore decreasing the number of borrowings entering English (Wrenn 1977, p. 62). The words of Scandinavian origin are mostly indirect borrowings beginning on *sc-/sk-* like *skill*, *skirt*, *score*, *sky*, *skin*, etc. However, there have been instances of some more recent borrowings in the English lexicon like *muggy*, *ski*, *fjord*, *troll*, *saga*, etc. (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007, p. 42-43).

As previously stated, English absorbed hundreds of words as a result of contacts with other (distant) languages, among which were Italian (*studio*, *broccoli*, *casino*, *tempo*, *balcony*, *violin*, etc.), Dutch (*yacht*, *cruise*, *cookie*, *sketch*, *cranberry*, etc.), German (*kindergarden*, *noodle*, *hamburger*, *snitzel*, *saurkraft*, *strafe*, etc.), Japanese (*judo*, *sushi*, *tsunami*, *karaoke*, *geisha*, *kamikaze*, *samurai*, etc.), Chinese (*ketchup*, *tea*, *sum*, *litchee*, etc.), Spanish (*taco*, *cannibal*, *guitar*, *tornado*, *canyon*, etc.), Hindi (*jungle*, *bandanna*, *pyjama*, *bungalow*, *shampoo*, etc.), African (*zebra*, *gorilla*, *banana*, *jazz*, *zombie*, etc.), Arabic (*harem*, *hashish*,

*caravan, sultan, mosque*, etc.), Polynesian Words (*taboo, tattoo*, etc.), etc., frequently used not only in English but in other receptor languages, Ukrainian and Russian as well (Kemmer, 2013).

The period between the two World Wars is characterized by the movement of people in search for a better and safer place to live. Thousands of people settled down primarily in economically more stable English-speaking countries, such as the USA, Australia and Great Britain. This resulted in the intensification of the borrowing process that influenced some spheres of the English reality, such as culture, cuisine, religion and lifestyle. This *hospitality* contributes to a great flux of foreign words into English throughout its history.

Through its contact with other countries, the English language has borrowed words from relatively unknown languages (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007, p. 50). This fact proves that the language has reached the most distant places and is familiar to each country of the world. The rapid integration of borrowed items and their vast use explain the reason why the number of words with the *loan* status in English has decreased. According to Barber (1964, p. 98), contemporary English exports words rather than importing them, therefore present-day English contains “more words of foreign origin than of native stock”. As a result of the recent rise of North America, English has gained the status of the language of international communication, meaning that it has ceased to be predominantly a receptor language (which it had been for centuries) and has become the source of lexis for others itself (Görlach 2003, p. 6-7).

## **2.2 Background for the spread of English**

The process in which a language gains the status of lingua franca may take a long time over the course of its history. Scholars name several factors which have influenced the spread of English. According to Crystal (2003, p. 29), these factors are: geographical-historical (the movement of English around the world and the expansion of other continents) and socio-cultural (the social, political and economic stability of English-speaking countries, the USA in particular). These aspects are more extensively analyzed also by other linguists.

For example, Greenbaum (1985, p. 234-236) distinguishes three factors which promoted English as a lingua franca:

1. colonialism: when parts of the British empire did not share the same mother tongue, English became “a chief language” in maintaining the contacts between former colonies (also Hiltunen 1993, p. 218; Leung and Street 2012, p. 1);
2. world trade: trade was of great importance to national economics and many people became interested in learning English (McArthur cited in Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 23; Bator 1993, p. 235; Görlach 2003, p. 43);
3. the scientific and technological superiority of the US after World War II: it became difficult to build a career in these fields without a knowledge of English (Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 117; Dovring 1997, p. 118; Barber 1993, p. 262; Daulton 2008, p. 11).

In their turn, Svartvik and Leech (2006, p. 227-228) also name three historical stages in the formation of English as a common language:

1. imperial expansion of European powers, in which the English spread their language around the world;
2. technological evolution, or industrial revolution, where Americans and Britons took the principal part;
3. globalization, when the world begins to behave “like a single society”, accompanied by electronic revolution (also Leung and Street 2012, p. 1).

Other factors which contributed to the language spread were migration (Hiltunen 1993, p. 279), missionary expeditions, deliberate government policy and force (Bator 1993, p. 234-235; McArthur cited in Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 23).

The most fruitful period for both the expansion of the English vocabulary and its spread and impact on other language lexicons was evidently the twentieth century. English words have become especially important after World War II. This period was characterized by a range of inventions which considerably influenced both the life of people and, as expected, the word stock of other languages (Görlach 2003, p. 1). Beginning with the appearance of radio in the 1920s, television in the 1930s and ending with the current rapid development of technology, the language word stock has been substantially enlarged. The coming era of scientific and technological progress, which has resulted in the appearance of such words as *laptop*, *hard-drive*, *cyberspace*, *hacker*, *hi-tech*, *database*, *software*, *etc.*, has also greatly contributed to the enrichment of other language vocabularies. The invention of the Internet caused establishment

of a range of English words, such as *spam*, *online*, *flamer*, *download*, *e-mail*, *blogosphere*, *I-pad*, etc., which have later become genuine parts of the lexicon of many languages (Styshov, 2012). The invention of airplanes and trains made it easier for people to migrate and settle in other countries. Such migrations also presuppose peoples' searching for a common language to communicate.

A short summary of the English language development is provided by Phillipson who describes the course of the spread of the English language as "from imperial via postimperial to neoimperial" (2009, p. 55).

## **2.3 Causes for the popularity of English**

The status of English as a global language, the language of international communication, its wide use in nearly all domains of life in other countries have greatly contributed to its influence on many other languages and even cultures. But the question is: how can such popularity and usability of the language be explained or why is English the most popular and the most favorable language in the world?

Wrenn (1977, p. 6-9) clarifies the wide use of English demonstrating the view of it as an easy-to-learn language. He points out that the most significant factor here is "extraordinary receptive and adaptable heterogeneity" of English. This is explained by the fact that since the Middle Ages, English has taken its material from almost all languages in the world and made them similar to its own (see Section 2.1). Consequently, at least a certain part of foreign elements are easily recognizable to the speakers of the languages these words originate from. It also eases the process of English learning. Some other, not less important, reasons mentioned by Wrenn are the "simplicity of inflexion" (the minimum change in words and their endings), as well as the fixed word order in the sentence. This in turn makes the language easier to use as well. The other advantages of learning English are the use of periphrases and prepositions (aimed to replace the lost inflexions) and auxiliary verbs (thought to simplify the elaborate tense system), likewise a well-developed intonation to express a necessary shade of meaning without varying the shape of a word, formerly observed.

The last two points are not very convincing to me. As an English user of one of the expanding circle countries, I would argue that the tense system, and the not quite logical spelling system

make it a difficult language to learn. Additionally, the occurrence of irregular verbs, the use of auxiliary verbs and the wide use of prepositions, especially in combination with verbs (where a verb may gain a totally different meaning), are not very easy to learn. A study carried out by Guardiano et al. concerning English as the language of science, shows that many non-native speaking scholars, even those from countries where English is the second language, experience some difficulties in writing scientific papers. Beside the mentioned problems, linguists name also the stylistic differentiation, article usage, anomalous choices in the word order, use of modals and several others as problematic barriers in learning English (2007, p. 30).

Concerning intonation, I completely agree with Wrenn. In the process of its development, English did lose many of its inflexions, for example, diminutive or augmentative suffixes which have almost died out. The use of various intonation patterns helps the interlocutor can to better understand the actual meaning or attitude of what has been said. The comprehension of intonation is greatly supported by the facial expression and body language (Hirst and di Cristo 1998, p. 45). However, such means of communication are characteristic of any language, even irrespective of some differences.

Additionally there are some extralinguistic aspects important in the popularization of English. English does not thrive only because of its simplicity but mostly due to cultural, economic and political reasons. In the context of globalization, English is also said to be “a language of convenience” (Ostler 2011, p. xv), as far as it is convenient to use a commonly known language in various spheres. The use of the same language is also considerably important in the work of international business and academic communities, since it saves much time and effort avoiding the use of translational support systems.

In order to be able to collaborate with other communities, it is important to provide facilities for learning English. It is now both prestigious and necessary to know English which is why the teaching of English has recently become “an important global industry” (Svartvik and Leech 2006, p. 232). As a result, according to the European Council’s data, 90 % of schoolchildren in EU member-countries study English as a foreign language (Dröschel 2011, p. 103).

English is regarded as a flexible language which permits different creative ways in word building and contraction. Such English contractions like *thx*, *lol*, *btw*, etc. have become a

usual thing while texting and mailing. Their meaning is comprehensive and saves time for users, mostly European youngsters.

Crystal emphasizes that language use also depends on changes in fashion (2003, p. 392). This can be related to what Nash says, arguing that English is the primary language in pop-culture and entertainment events (1992, p. 185), the understanding of which also requires the knowledge of English. However, these points will be further explored in more detail below (see Section 2.4.).

My opinion is that the most significant factor that influences the choice of language is the matter of its *up-to-dateness* and appropriateness at a certain period of time, and English certainly matches these criteria.

## **2.4 Who needs English?**

English is a global lingua franca and people approach the task of learning it with certain goals in mind. Naturally these vary depending on a person's gender, age, class, identity and location (Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 5).

Ostler states that English is “a natural choice for those seeking access to the world's wealth” (2011, p. 15). This statement is also supported by Dröschel's observation of the image of success of English among those who are learning it in order “to climb the socio-economic ladder” (2011, p. 28). It is therefore not strange that English functions as a lingua franca, first of all, among “the elite and in academic circles” (Ammon and McConnell 2002, p. 26).

Aside from the fields of science and business, the acquisition of English is also required in modern technologies and the fashion and entertainment industries which are chiefly very popular among youngsters. Svartvik and Leech state that English has a huge impact on youth all over the world through the means of movies, computer games and pop music (2006, p. 231). This actually has a two-side effect. Previously, learners used books for English learning purposes; however, children nowadays, especially those in Europe, have broad access to spoken English and better chances to master the spoken language faster. On the other hand, modern technological means of language acquisition reduce the benefit of reading books by children and make their reading skills poorer. Advanced learners feel the need for learning English as well, due to the fact that most information stored in electronic retrieval systems that is used for higher educational institutions is also in English.



Consequently, English is the language of the educated middle class as well as young people in many parts of the world (Joseph and Ramani 2006, p. 187). Nonetheless, it is not limited just to schooling and career building purposes. English is also the first-choice language for foreigners and refugees who migrate to economically well-developed countries, used by them as a common language in early interactions with the local population (Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 128).

Khoutyz (2010, p. 202) emphasizes that the use of loanwords also depends on the speaker's age, level of education, skills in everyday interactions, as well as experience in international communication, and the psychological readiness of the speaker. However, according to Crystal, the present digital age has caused people to become more focused on communication (2003, p. 393). More and more people nowadays come into personal contacts with others due to the wide availability of the Internet. Many of them, regardless of gender, age, class, identity or location, maintain conversations on different topics, obtain new experiences, exchange views, make friends, or even arrange meetings and dates. As a result, English is able, at least partially, to meet the needs of many people.

## **2.5 The role of mass media in the spread of English elements**

A separate section should be devoted to the role of contemporary mass media since they are considered “the most influential sources in the introduction of new vocabulary” into contexts of other languages (Makarova 2012, p. 74).

According to Rosenhouse and Kowner (2008, p. 277), the widespread use of English loanwords in the borrowing language nowadays is a threefold process, i.e. direct communication, the system of education and the means of mass media. Consequently, English is often regarded as:

- the language of education (Crystal 2003, p. 110; Ammon and McConnell 2002, p. 173; Leung and Street 2012, p. xi);
- the language of international safety: air, land (Hiltunen 1993, p. 278; Crystal 2003, p. 106);
- an auxiliary language in international travel (Nash 1992, p. 185; Crystal 2003, p. 104-105);

- the language of mass media (Crystal 2003, p. 90; Dovring 1997, p. 22; Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 14).

Media is currently one of the most important tools for spreading information. Historically speaking, their formation has two periods. Graddol (2001, p. 27) introduces them as two mechanisms which have greatly contributed to the vast use of English. The first one is the invention of printing, and the second mechanism, which gradually replaced the previous one, is broadcasting. The development of modern technologies, like satellite or network broadcasting, plays a great role in language promotion and spread. The difference between the mechanisms lies in printing providing standard language forms and modern mass media distributing mainly spoken language variants.

Today, world broadcasting presents information on any subject matter such as politics, business, sports, technology, science, arts, music, entertainment, etc. The constant use of English on the Internet, radio, television and other electronic media outlets contributes to the idea that “everybody speaks English” (Dovring 1997, p. 38). This, of course, causes a great influx of English loanwords, especially anglicisms, to other languages, that almost automatically influences people’s language use.

The most essential influence is that of the USA. 70-80 % of all TV fiction transmitted on European television is American. Due to the successful development of the entertainment industries, the Americans have introduced the American lifestyle and culture as well as their language to the entire world through television and the Internet. This is what Philipson calls “cultural globalization” (2009, p. 125). Also in some countries English-speaking channels are some of the cheapest (Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 14). Moreover, one of the reasons for the successful diffusion of English in Europe (Nordic and Western, in particular) is that the majority of television programmes prefer to just use subtitles instead of dubbing (Verspoor *et al.* 2011, p. 150). Many people have the opinion that the preference of subtitling over dubbing contributes to the development of foreign language (in this case English) skills. Hence, the dominance of English in the media landscape is a common phenomenon.

## **2.6 Views on English as a global language**

Today English is found “at the edge of economic modernization and industrial development” (Graddol 2001, p. 34) and it is not surprising that it dominates in technology, trade, military,

engineering, business, service, and even in the language of terrorism (Dovring 1997, p. 22; Pennycook 2001, p. 80). Crystal (2003, p. 189) asserts that there is no language in the world which has managed to reach such recognition as English.

Linguists have different attitudes and views on what power English presents in the world. English nowadays influences the structure of other languages providing them with their native lexical elements.

Crystal (2003, p. 22) and McArthur (cited in Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 23) agree that for the target language such a process can have both positive and negative impacts. The positive side of taking new loanwords into the language can be treated as the enrichment of its vocabulary. On the other hand, it is believed that English can “hurt” the language or lead to the dying out of some of its lexical units. This makes the situation paradoxical.

Recent English loans are being adopted in European languages at such a high speed that this phenomenon evokes a great concern among European speakers. Is the contact between major and minor languages a norm, and is there a threat to the existence of the latter?

The globalizing character of English has too much impact on other languages. It may threaten their existence and increase the cultural dominance of the English speaking countries over the non-English-speaking ones, which may lead to «language death» of the latter (Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p. 8; McArthur cited in Rudby and Saraceni 2006, p. 25). The result of this *fight* between two unequal societies is sometimes known as “linguistic genocide” (Hoffmann, 2011), or “linguistic imperialism” (Phillipson, 2009). Campbell and Muntzel (1992, p. 182-183) present several types of language death. Besides sudden language death (connected with death of its speakers), radical (caused by political repressions) and bottom-to-top death (limited use of language only during some rituals and occasions), there is also a gradual language death, which can be appropriate in the description of the present-day language situation.

Barber (1964, p. 95) discusses the two reasons of words’ dying out. These are either that the object a word denotes has become extinct itself, or that it has been given a more up-to-date label (as in the case of gradual death). The last one is more harmful because it is deliberate.

English introduces its own lexical units, or as far as Nash states its “fashionable contaminations” in other languages (1992, p. 185). That is the reason why many words of

English origin are no longer restricted in other languages, e.g. *shopping*, *baby*, *spray*, *mobbing*, etc. In this way, the spread of English causes minor use of many local languages that may lead to the homogeneousness of the world (Romaine 1992, p. 253).

Similar views are shared by other linguists. For instance, Philipson is bothered by the influence of English on the media of Nordic regions, where it has already reached the status of a second language, and may “utilize the original language in the north of Europe” (2009, p. 152). The more radical opinion on this problem has Cenoz, claiming that the spread of the English language is “the reflection of globalization which can result in the loss of cultural identity” (2011, p. 15).

Other linguists support neutralism towards recent borrowings. Gardt et al recommends a portioned use of anglicisms. The linguist states that it is unnecessary to use too many loanwords which can lead to misunderstanding in communication and a loss of explicitness of the mother tongue. On the other hand, to neglect their use from the puristic<sup>1</sup> viewpoint in the context of present globalization would seem ridiculous as well (2004, p. 189). Johansson and Graedler (2002), who do not consider English as a menace to the Norwegian language, though warn that a wide use of anglicisms (sometimes incomprehensible) may cause the division of people depending on their level of knowledge of English.

Speakers can minimize the use of loans but cannot totally avoid them. The language may make attempts to create its own lexemes based on authentic elements (also described in Section 3.2.), but this is a long-term process and usually not a successful one. For instance, with the constant progress in the sphere of science and technology, which entails production of new terms, it is impractical for speakers of other languages to create new neologisms. Baker and Prys Jones explain it by the inability of some languages to form new terminology, by the lasting process of its acceptance and a possible lack of accurate word-for-word equivalence between the source and receiving languages (1998, p. 164). This may result in a weak resistance of minor languages towards the intrusion of anglicisms (mainly internationalisms), especially in terms of present globalization.

---

<sup>1</sup> Purism is viewed as an effort “to purge the language of elements considered to be nonnative” (Wexler 1974: 2).

The use of a wide range of synonymic words and expressions in speech, regardless of the fact whether they are authentic or borrowed, allows a person to broaden their vocabulary and, probably, sound more intelligent. My viewpoint on this situation is that only a moderate and skillful usage of loanwords in the speech is not supposed to interfere with the wholeness of the receptor language.

# 3 The linguistic situation in Ukraine

Ukraine is the second largest country in Europe, and Ukrainian is the second widely-spoken language in the Slavic language family. The native language in the country is also an object of pride for the local Ukrainophilic<sup>1</sup> population, who calls it “the language of the nightingale” (Fournier 2012, p. 36).

Yet, Ukrainian is not the only language spoken in Ukraine. Presence of other national minorities as well as the linguistic influences of the border countries (Belarus, Poland, Slovakia, Hungary, Romania, Moldova and Russia) on Ukrainian, allow Ukraine to be thought of as a multilingual country nowadays (Language Education Policy Profile, 2008-2011).

Under manifold historical circumstances (see Table 3.2), the other widely used language in the country is Russian. Coexistence of the two major, albeit constantly competing languages within one country testifies to Ukrainian-Russian bilingualism or diglossia (Masenko 2009, p. 101; Seals 2009, p. 2), which makes the language situation “a poignant issue” in Ukraine (Bilaniuk 2006, p. 1)

## 3.1 A short historical outline of Ukrainian and Russian

As mentioned, both Ukrainian and Russian are the representatives of the Slavic language group, which specifically belong to the Eastern Slavic sub-group (see Figure 3.1). Being the parts of the same language family helps explain a certain similarity in vocabularies between the two languages.

---

<sup>1</sup> Ukrainophilism associates with pro-Ukrainian attitudes and sentiments, also ethnically conscious Ukrainians (Shumlianskyi 2010, p. 138)

Figure 3.1 Division of Slavic languages. Origin of Ukrainian and Russian (Arlotto 1972, p. 107)



Questions concerning the present situation of Ukrainian and its word stock cannot be completely answered without looking back into the past (Pavlenko 2010, p. 133-149). The historical development of a language depends on the development of the country or society it is used in. Historical events that took place in Ukraine made it difficult for Ukrainian to develop independently as a language. The location and nature of the country have always made it a target of disagreements at present and an attractive object for invasions from neighbouring states in the past. Rudnytzky (2005, p. 217) stresses that, due to its strategic geopolitical position, Ukraine has always been found between two worlds in all senses. Describing the nature of Ukrainian literature (which, I think, is directly connected to the nature of Ukraine's development itself), he says the following:

[H]istorically it can be viewed as a literature between Constantinople and Rome. Culturally one can speak of Ukrainian literature between Asia and Europe. Ideologically, in the recent past, it can be viewed as a literature between communism and fascism, and in the immediate past, it can be viewed as a literature between Marxism and western democracy, between Moscow and Washington.

To better visualize the evolution of the two Slavic languages, I provide a table of historical events, which directly influenced the course of their development. The information below as well as provided examples are cited from different sources, namely Ward (1986), Pavlenko (2010), Magocsi (2010), Lemkin (1953), Zhurzhenko (2002), Wilson (1997), McKishnie (2012), Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade (1999).

Table 3.1 The diachronic development of Russian and Ukrainian

Century	Historical events	Linguistic development
9 <sup>th</sup> C.	A great contribution of Norsemen to the state-formation of the East Slavonic civilization, i.e. the foundation of Kyïvan Rus, by the dynasty of Ruriks (representatives of <i>Varyags</i> , the name applied to the Vikings). The period is characterized by the emergence of Slavic literacy, adoption of Christianity in the state.	The language spoken is Old Church Slavonic, and written by means of Cyrillic script (introduced by the brothers Cyril and Methodius who came from Byzantium to teach Slavs a new religion). A few words of Norse origin remained in the vocabulary, e.g. <i>ябеда</i> [jabeda] - modern <i>slander</i> ; <i>скат</i> [skat] - <i>skate fish</i> , and some first names, like <i>Igor</i> , <i>O'lga</i> , etc., which are still popular nowadays in the three countries.
10-11 <sup>th</sup> C.	Kyïvan Rus becomes a great trading centre.	The fact explains signs of other contemporary languages, especially Greek, in the state. Appearance of the East Slavonic language, and a variety of dialects spoken by Slavic tribes, which successfully co-exist in Rus.
13-15 <sup>th</sup> C.	After the Mongol-Tatars' invasion of Kyïvan Rus, the northern part of the state unites around present Moscow and Novgorod, and its southern part with Kyïv is taken under control of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania.	The split of the state causes the <u>split of the East Slavonic dialects</u> : with East Slavonic (later Russian) in the north, and Ruthenian (afterwards Ukrainian and Belarusian) in the south. The period is characterized by borrowing and successful adoption of Turkish words in the Russian language, e.g. <i>сундук</i> [sunduk] - <i>trunk</i> , <i>башимак</i> [bashmak] - <i>shoe</i> , <i>казна</i> [kazna] - <i>treasury</i> , etc., and very low Lithuanian influences on Ukrainian.
15-17 <sup>th</sup> C.	The formation of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, which Belarus becomes a part of. Most of present Ukraine is retained by the Polish crown.	This results in a great flow of Polish words in both Ukrainian and Russian: <i>погон</i> [pogon] - <i>shoulder-tab</i> , <i>сбруя</i> [sbruja] - <i>harness</i> . Polish also becomes a mediator in borrowing lexemes from German ( <i>штука</i> [shtuka] - <i>item, piece</i> ) and Latin ( <i>форма</i> [forma] - <i>form</i> ).
17-18 <sup>th</sup> C.	After the victory in the battle with the Polish possessor, Ukrainian Cossacks make a treaty with Russia, according to which Kyïv and left-bank Ukraine come under its control.	The first wave of Russification, where Russian becomes the language of administration on Ukrainian territories.
18 <sup>th</sup> C.	Early contacts of Russia with Europe: trips of Peter the Great to London in order to acquire some knowledge in shipbuilding.	It causes appearance of great number of German and French, as well as Dutch and English loanwords, mostly nautical terminology.
19 <sup>th</sup> C.	1. The establishment of modern literary <u>Ukrainian</u> and the rise of Ukrainian nationalism. In reaction to it, numerous decrees ban publication in the Ukrainian language. 2. Translation and reading of pieces of English literature by the <u>Russian</u> society. Scientific achievements, love for sports, social, religious and politic life, as well as exploration of exotic lands of Britons essentially influence the Russian vocabulary.	➤ Decrease in the use of Ukrainian. Ukrainian literary works cannot be published, except the west of the country, which is under Polish control.  ➤ The second wave of Russification, as a result of the industrial revolution, which entails a huge influx of Russian workers into Kyïv. Russians constitute ethnic majority, and the Russian language becomes dominant in the country. Such words as <i>митинг</i> [miting] < <i>meeting</i> , <i>агностик</i> [agnostik] < <i>agnostic</i> , <i>гіббон</i> [gibbon] < <i>gibbon</i> , <i>футбол</i> [futbol] < <i>football</i> and many others enter the Russian word stock in this period.



<b>19-20<sup>th</sup> C.</b>	In the days of the Austro-Hungarian empire, 13% of the Ukrainian population (on the west side) are under Austrian control, 2 % under Hungarian rule, and the final, 85%, belong to the Russian Empire.	Austro-Hungarian rule brings many new lexemes into the word stock of Ukraine. It also explains present knowledge of Hungarian, Moldavian and Romanian among Ukrainians in western regions. Use of Russian in the east, and multilingualism in the country as such.
<b>20<sup>th</sup> C.</b>	<p>1. The October Revolution, the end of WWI, and subsequent dissolution of the Russian empire contributes to the process of Ukrainianization.</p> <p>2. Huge losses in WW2 resulted in change in consciousness and searches for new ways of expression, i.e. native. Low proficiency in Russian among Ukrainian-speaking population provokes further repressions (the most horrible is the holocaust in 1932-1933).</p> <p>3. Re-starting of overseas contacts, further development of science and sport, accompanied by the rise of pop culture and music, invention of television and radio, high interest in fashion and leisure.</p>	<p>1920-30: <u>Russian</u> experiences the obsolescence of many words, loses parts of its active vocabulary, and adopts new words into its stock. <i>Visibility</i> and recognition of the <u>Ukrainian</u> language.</p> <p>1930-40: Loanwords in <u>Russian</u> gain negative associations, as a reaction of an isolated society towards all foreign. The third wave of Russification. Russian is again in a leading position and <u>Ukrainian</u> has an insignificant role.</p> <p>1950-70: The introduction of new loans in <u>both</u> languages, such as <i>дизайн</i> [dizajn] &lt; <i>design</i>, <i>хоббі</i> [hobbi] &lt; <i>hobby</i>, <i>джаз</i> [dzhaz] &lt; <i>jazz</i>, use of calques and new creations, usually based Greek and Latin elements), such as <i>стереозапис</i> [stereozaapis] &lt; <i>stereo recording</i>, <i>хит-песня</i> [hit pesnja] &lt; <i>hit song</i>.</p>
<b>20-21<sup>st</sup> C.</b>	<p>1. Proclamation of the independence of Ukraine.</p> <p>2. Contacts with other countries cause the necessity of learning English.</p> <p>3. Pro-Russian politics.</p>	<p>1989: Ukrainian becomes the state language in the country, reaffirmed in 1996.</p> <p>Derussification, in which English gets a new function in the country, i.e. to compete with Russian. Flow of anglicisms into Ukrainian, many of which come into use without being integrated in the language, e.g. <i>єврібаді</i> [evribadi] &lt; <i>everybody</i>, etc.</p> <p>2012: Russian gets a status of official language.</p>

The diachronic view of the language in the area that is now Ukraine points to Russia's dominance for over 300 years, which led to a decline of use of the Ukrainian language and culture, and a gradual denationalization of the population. Attempts to suppress and liquidate every sign of Ukrainian identity could have caused the death of the language (see Section 2.6).

## 3.2 Russian influence: the results of the Russification

During Soviet times, Russian language policy was constantly concentrated on the promotion of Russian as a first language for other nationalities found in the Soviet Union. Aimed to cause the disuse of Ukrainian, the manifestation of *Russification* in Ukraine was manifold. Due to bordering with Russia, the eastern part of Ukraine underwent greater influence and was completely Russified.

An interesting period for the language development was the period between the two World Wars, characterized by the division of the country between the two empires, i.e. Russian and Austro-Hungarian, which entailed penetration of plenty of loanwords into Ukrainian. Krouglov states that this historical circumstance influenced the course of the development of Ukrainian, and thus, the whole linguistic situation in Ukraine, that led to failure in the formation of Ukrainian as a single literary language (2002, p. 223). According to Wexler (1974, p. 126-127), the language was divided into Eastern and Western Ukrainian. In order to meet the needs of the growing literary language after the First World War, Ukrainian had to follow either a predominantly ethnographic approach (creating neologisms as a source of lexical enrichment), or a modified ethnographic approach (preferring loanwords to native neologisms). The extension of Ukrainian vocabulary was predominantly done by means of creation of new native lexemes in the West of Ukraine, while borrowing of foreign items was heavily practiced in the East. The latter was essentially encouraged by a vast adoption of internationalisms in Russian (Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade 1999, p. 3-6), which became a main supplier of new words into Ukrainian in the Eastern regions.

After Ukraine gained the status of an independent state, the government began a campaign to protect the vernacular attributes of the country, i.e. traditional signs of statehood, culture and language, propagated by means of Ukrainization as an opposition to continuous Russification (Basiuk 2000, p. 35). But the process of Ukrainization was not successful, partly because of economic difficulties and non-acceptance of the language by the previously Russified East Ukrainian population.

Efforts to “Ukrainianize” left-bank Ukraine resulted in the increase of the visibility of Ukrainian in the country, though not in the position change of the language. The consequence of Russian-Ukrainian opposition led to creating a hybrid language, called *surzhyk* (Masenko 2009, p. 102). Krouglov (2002, p. 228) describes it as:

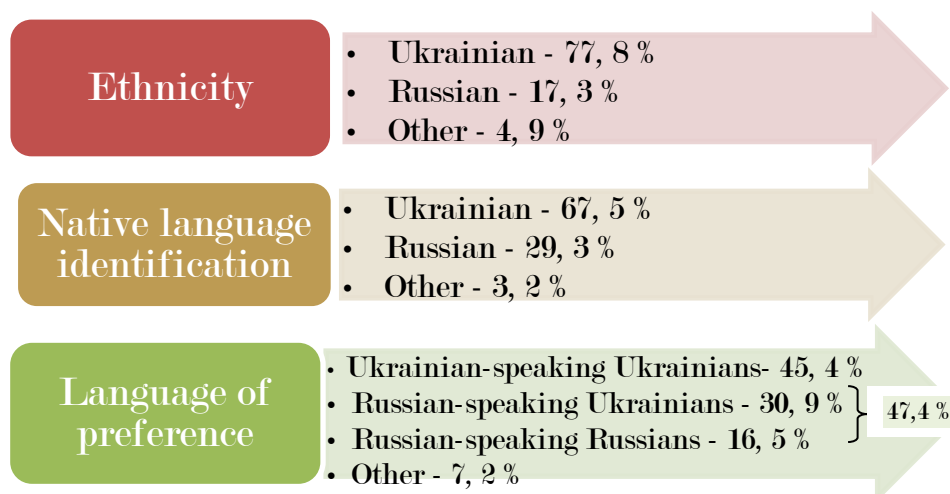
[A] Ukrainian-Russian mix, which was used by the Ukrainian speakers who made an attempt to adjust their idiolects to the new Russian environment when they were moving from the countryside to a city of predominantly Russian speakers.

Surzhyk is also regarded as a *language* of semi-Russified Ukrainians (Shumlianskyi 2010, p. 143), a degraded form of communication used mostly in central regions of Ukraine (Olszański 2012, p. 12). This linguistic phenomenon in the context of Ukrainian provokes, mostly, negative associations among Ukrainian linguists as well as the majority of Ukrainians. This

language variant is characterized by the use of words originally Russian but spelled or pronounced in the Ukrainian manner. *Нап<sup>р</sup>яженіє* [naprjazhenije] < (Rus.) *напряж<sup>е</sup>н<sup>и</sup>е* instead of (Ukr.) *напруга* [napruha] - tension, *ток* [tok] < (Rus.) *ток* instead of (Ukr.) *струм* [strum] - amperage are only few examples of the use of surzhyk (Medvediv, 2012).

The historical development of Ukraine gave the rise to ethnic, political, economic and cultural diversity in Ukraine, as well as linguistic (Wilson 1997, p. 192; Goble 2000, p. 114-116). The first Ukrainian census, carried out in 2001, and the series of average data for 2000-2003, illustrate the correlation of language use with ethnic identity (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.2 Identification of Ukrainians according to the criteria of ethnicity and language (based on Kulyk 2010, p. 85-86)



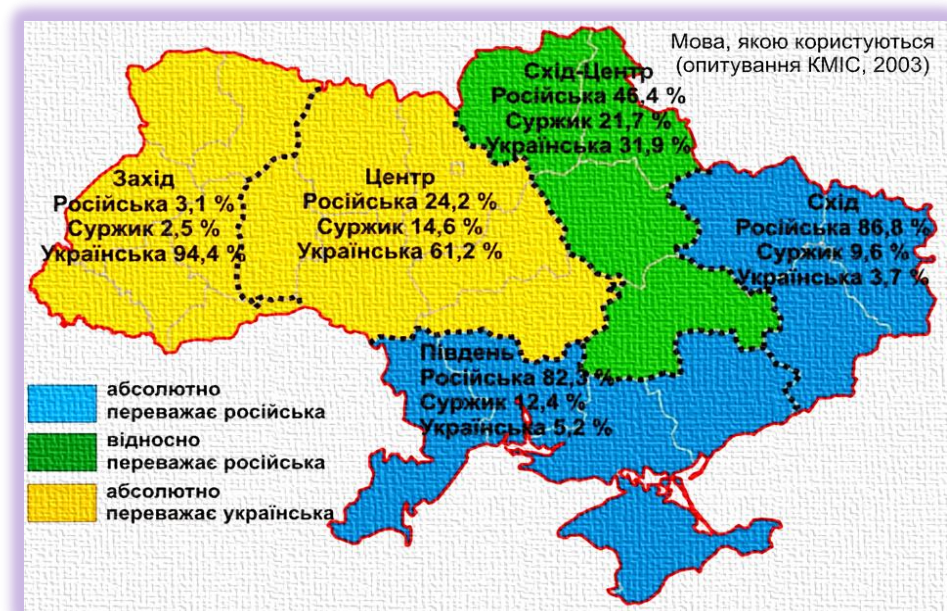
The figure shows that the number of people who prefer to speak Ukrainian is lower than the number of those who identify themselves with Ukrainian as their native language, which is again lower than the number of people who claim to be ethnic Ukrainians.

Referring to other sources, Shumlyanskyi (2010, p. 137) distinguishes four language groups in Ukrainian society (based chiefly on the criterion of the *language of preference*, which is a more suitable term for the present language realities in Ukraine): Ukrainophone (Ukrainian speakers), Russophone (Russian speakers), bilinguals (users of both languages) and surzhyk speakers (mixed Ukrainian-Russian speech).

According to the data provided by Kyiv International Institute of Sociology (Ukr. KMIC), Ukraine is divided into three distinct macroregions: West and Center (yellow area on the map) with absolute dominance of Ukrainian, East-Center (in green) with relative dominance of

Russian and high use of surzhyk and East and South (in blue colour) with absolute dominance of Russian.

Figure 3.3 The distribution of Russian, Ukrainian and surzhyk among the adult population of Ukraine (Melnyk and Chernychko 2010, p. 74).



The significant impact of Russian on the language situation in Ukraine made it dominate in all spheres, not only in the east of Ukraine (where the state borders with the Russian Federation), but in the whole country. Russian prevails in both media practices and social interactions, has a high status as a business language (McKinshnie 2012, p. 24; Seals 2009, p. 5) and functions as a second official language, under the title of a "regional language" (since 2012), whereas Ukrainian "still suffers from limited use and its low status" (Bilaniuk 2006, p. 2). The share of Russian publications has become higher than the share of Russian-speaking citizens. This situation has made Ukrainian a language with "symbolic status" (Kulyk 2010, p. 93-94).

Co-existence of the two main languages makes the language situation even more problematic these days. Language has recently become a politicized issue and an object of political manipulations. As a result, language choice quite often depends on the political views of the Ukrainian people.

Due to its "ambiguous transition from totalitarianism to democracy" (Krasnoboka and Brants 2006, p. 92), Ukraine is facing the choice between pro-Western and pro-Eastern integration. Zaliznyak is convinced that the attitude of Ukrainians towards the integration into European

structures or following the Eurasian orientation is directly connected with the linguistic situation in Ukraine. The author claims that the main part of the respondents who supported the idea of joining EU and NATO (46.7%), are Ukrainian native speakers, whereas the rest of the population who were against it were predominantly Russian speakers (2009, p. 149-155).

As an example of language-politics interdependence, I consider the Presidential elections in 2004 (see Figure 3.3, the results of which provoked the Orange Revolution. This event revealed to what extent the language of preference of Ukrainians is connected with the political beliefs and behaviours in the country. Predominantly Ukrainian-speaking West and Center stand for pro-European choice of Ukrainian speakers, whereas Russian-speaking East and South East - for defense of pro-Russian values.

Figure 3.4 Political attitudes of Ukrainians



If we compare the two figures (3.2 and 3.3), which reflect the data of political views and the language use in different administrative regions, we may speak of the de facto division of the country into two parts “East” and “West” following both language and political boundaries (except the votes of *relatively* Russian-speaking Dnipropetrovsk).

The heterogeneity of Ukrainian citizens, diglossia and the political multi-vectoriness of the country are factors which led to the events of 2013-2014 (connected with Ukraine’s integration with EU), and a crisis in which Ukraine is standing on the threshold of the war. The situation has confirmed the existence of a split of the Ukrainian nation into "East" and "West", which continually threatens its national security. The absolute domination of the Russian population and Russian language (next to Crimean Tatar and Ukrainian) in the

Autonomous Republic of Crimea (statistics of the National Institute of Strategic Studies in Ukraine), played a key role in the annexation of the peninsula by the neighbouring country in 2014.

The consequences of the activity of the Ukrainian language policy and the manifold political disputes within society make the question of the language in Ukraine one of the most painful topics nowadays. Taking into consideration the current linguistic situation, in which Russian prevails as a language of everyday use, people should bear in mind this may lead to the native gradual destruction of the native language.

### **3.3 Ukrainian and Russian in the process of globalization: the impact of English**

Zhurzhenko (2002, p. 3) states that the question of language choice (Ukrainian or Russian) and its consequences will soon be less significant than it has used to be, due to the fact that Ukraine, just like all other countries in the world, has entered a new era, i.e. globalization. Bilaniuk points out that, since Ukraine gained the status of an independent country, English has become a “more widespread, visible and desirable language” (2005, p. 181). Contacts between Ukraine and English-speaking societies become more and more common in nearly all domains of life. Knowledge of English is required or, at least, desirable in many positions. Its social status in Ukraine, according to language-learning preference, in the country has already become higher than that of Ukrainian (Goodman 2009, p. 34; Bilaniuk 2005, p. 183).

The influence of global English is strongly explicit in Ukrainian. This leads to the appearance of a new concept in Ukrainian linguistics *ukrlish*, first introduced by Radchuk. The term implies a Ukrainian variant of the English language. Ukrlish demonstrates the English language’s influences on Ukrainian on different levels, such as morphological level, in which many Ukrainian lexemes are transcribed as the English-like or syntactic level, where English affects the established word order in Ukrainian (Radchuk 2008, p. 163). The linguist states that English lexemes nowadays replenish the Ukrainian word stock even more than Russian. He emphasizes the fact that many Ukrainians (scholars, in particular) lose their resistance towards the use of foreign words and lack efforts to find Ukrainian counterparts to express their thoughts, using e.g. *електорам* [elektorat] instead of *виборці* [vybortsi] < *electorate*, *реснектувану* [respektuvaty] instead of *шанувану* [shanuvaty] < *to respect*, etc.

Consequently, anglicisms often substitute native words in the speech, which may lead to a rarer use or total replacement of the latter.

In a similar way to Ukrainian, Russian has also developed a new variant, known as *novoyaz*, (“Newspeak”). Influenced by English since the 1940s, *novoyaz* was regarded as a language of totalitarian society, distorted by political ideology and lacking simplicity and clarity for entire understanding (Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade 1999, p. 320). This *artificial* language was practiced in the Soviet Union and has survived. *Novoyaz* greatly resembles *ukrlish* in its structure. Despite the fact that they were developed in different times, both variants interfere with the natural structure of Ukrainian and Russian, both on the morphological and the syntactic levels.

In contrast to earlier periods when English loans (usually based Greek and Latin elements) were regarded as the "educated borrowings" and occurred mostly in written or literary language, the items which enter vocabularies of other languages today (Ukrainian and Russian too), carry more international character due to media broadcasting (Baker and Prys Jones 1998, p. 164).

The ones who were first affected by the tide of globalization (Americanization) were Ukrainian youth. This was not so much the result of the expansion of the English language in Ukraine (encouraging English learning in school, distribution of English literature, etc.) as it was the promotion of the Western lifestyle (Chernikova and Smilyk 2009, p. 132), the “access to the once forbidden West” (Bilaniuk 2005, p. 182). Youth slang made use of various English lexemes (those I refer to as anglicisms, or exotisms) a common phenomenon, for example, *бої, заї* [boi, gai] < *boy, guy*; *дрендю* [frendy] < *friends*; *сек'юпими* [sekjuriti] < *security*, *олду* [oldy] < *parents*, *кпеїзи* [kreizi] < *crazy*, *намі* [pati] < *party*, etc., a usual phenomenon (Chernikova and Smilyk 2009, p. 132). Such items are very typical to both languages, and look very odd in both contexts and, therefore, provoke mostly negative reactions among Russian and Ukrainian linguists.

### **3.4 The use of anglicisms in the language of Ukrainian mass media**

Several linguists have attempted to investigate the problem of English loanwords in Ukrainian and Russian (Maximova, 2007; Cherniak, 2002; Chernikova and Smilyk, 2009). Most of them

agree that the media is one of the most important sources of new lexical items. The mass media is regarded as the most vulnerable to the use of loanwords and neologisms, and in comparison with other kinds of discourse, loanwords here are the most numerous (Maximova 2007, p. 79).

Due to intensive use in the media, a substantial part of lexical innovations gradually shift from a narrow, specific sphere of functioning (e.g. technology, music, etc.) to a broad daily use, and even becoming a part of literary language (Styshov, 2012). Therefore, it is not strange, that everyday newspapers publish articles which contain plenty of lexical items not generally characteristic of either Russian or Ukrainian language. A series of radical changes in the socio-economic and socio-political spheres of Ukrainian society of the late twentieth and the beginning of the twenty first centuries has the label of "neological boom" in the press caused by a massive flux of borrowings indicating new concepts (Kykot' and Hrytsenko).

Analyzing the impact of English items on the vocabulary of Ukrainian, Chernikova and Smilyk (2009, p. 129) emphasize that they are found in almost every sphere: economy (*баєр* [bajer] < *buyer*), education (*коледж* [koledzh] < *college*), culture (*перфоманс* [perfo-mans] < *performance*), advertisement (*біг-борд* [big bord] < *big board*), the socio-political sphere (*спічрайтер* [spichraiter] < *speechwriter*), sports (*ферплеї* [ferplei] < *fair play*), design (*стайлінг* [stailing] < *styling*), youth subculture (*чил-аут* [chil-aut] < *chill out*), means of communication (*роумінг* [rouming] < *roaming*) and many others. A typical feature of globalization is a distribution of similar loanwords across the world, which lets them reach lexicons of different languages almost simultaneously. These are, chiefly, items on the "exotic" stage of integration, connected with various innovations.

According to Dyolog (2011, p. 118), the most influential medium through which the majority of English loanwords come into Ukrainian is advertisement. The use of English insertions in advertisements (even if they have their equivalents in Ukrainian) will draw buyers' attention. Words like *арт-терапія* [art terapija] < *art therapy*; *фастфуд* [fast fud] < *fast food*; *дисконт* [diskont] < *discount* and *дефростер* [defroster] < *defroster*, among many others, are currently found in the Ukrainian lexicon. Dyolog also states that in both oral and written Ukrainian hybrid composites are being used (often in foreign language graphics), which are the first token of a foreign language unadapted form. Cherniak (2002, p. 29-30) claims that the representatives of media must and need to use loanwords in the speech, but not excessively. What is most important is to be sure that a word has undergone all the levels of



its integration in the language (see Section 1.4), and is understandable for the recipient, otherwise communicative failures are inevitable. Cherniak therefore emphasizes the necessity to provide a proper explanation of the word an author uses in his article, in cases where the word is new and is not registered in the dictionary.

### 3.5 Views towards the use of loanwords in Ukrainian

Many European countries currently try to oppose the overwhelming impact of English, and preserve their native languages and cultures. Language policies are aimed at getting rid of foreign elements (especially those which have native counterparts) and discourage their use in the language of the mass media

Ukrainians have always made an effort to resist the influence of loanwords, mainly Russian. Many people mistakenly believe that Ukrainian words are significantly better if they do not have Russian origins. The trend of substituting any kind of loanwords with Ukrainian neologisms was widely practiced in the beginning of the twentieth century in the west of Ukraine (see Section 3.2). Despite their uncommonness and the disability to prevent the flow of internationalisms, a lot of these neologisms survived and are used in the language even today, e.g. *фотографія* [fotohrafija] vs. *світлина* [svitlyna] < *photo*; *абсурд* [absurd] vs. *нісенітниця* [nisenitnytsja] < *absurd*, etc. (Wexler 1974, p. 129). At present, this tendency is maintained by several Ukrainian media sources which demand re-establishing of some indigenous Ukrainian patterns in everyday use. Krouglov describes this process as "internal westernization" (2002, p. 234). Creating new words on the basis of authentic roots and revival of old language samples today can be viewed as an attempt to protect the native language on the state level, a question of honour and self-identification, aimed to prove that a difference between the two nations does exist.

Lately, Ukrainian reader has also an opportunity to observe similar word formations, directed on the substitution of both russianisms and anglicisms. But this time the use of the newly invented items is mostly a characteristic feature of youth slang. Even Ukrainian-speaking Ukrainians do not usually use items, such as *розчепірка* [rozchepirka] instead of *парасоля* [parasolia] = umbrella, *завушники* [zavushnyky] instead of *серезжки* or *кульчики* [serezhyky, kul'chyky] = earrings, or *стрічкограй* [strichkohrai] instead of *магнітофон* [mahnitofon] =

tape-recorder, unless only for fun. The words are mainly an object of various discussions on Internet web-sites, rarely used in daily communication, because of their, sometimes, ridiculous forms. Yet, they are an ordinary phenomenon (!) on one of the Ukrainian TV-channels, STB (Ukr. СТБ), that also provokes diverse reactions among Ukrainians.

New lexical formations based on Ukrainian elements do not present great value for linguists as an issue of investigation (at least, I have not found so). In my opinion, similar to surzhyk (see Section 3.2.), these lexemes make more harm than good to the Ukrainian language because their unnecessary use, which sometimes suggests inappropriate connotations, distort the language as such.

The flow of loans and drastic changes in Ukrainian and Russian (Cherniak 2002, p. 25), the replacement of old borrowings by new loanwords (Kostomarov 1994, p. 81-82), barbarization, and excessive use of exotisms in media discourse (Styshov, 2012) disturb many scholars. Question on language changes in terms of Ukrainian and Russian taken in comparison is discussed in few works of Ukrainian linguists (Leleka, 2008; Styshov, 2008). These works describe aspects of similarity and difference taken place in language systems under the influence of loanwords. Kostomarov is concerned about the English influence, because it may make the Russian language less understandable for the average citizen, and claims that it may lead to the deformation of the Russian standard literary language (1994, p. 101). Styshov asserts, that to resist further globalization (or Russification) is possible only due to the *nationalization* of Ukrainian, which presupposes revival and development of native lexical units, maintenance and protection of national identity, creation of new words using the whole Ukrainian linguistic potential (2012; see also Polishchuk 2012, p. 222).

Leleka's comparative analysis, though based on the limited corpus within social and political sphere, shows that Russian media is more resistant towards the use of anglicisms than Ukrainian, which explains a slightly higher number of loans in the discourse of the latter. Leleka also points to the fact that Russian speakers have more negative associations with all foreign (similar to the 1930-40s period, see Table 3.1) and try to somehow protect their own social-political values. The explanation on more frequent use of English loans in the Ukrainian media discourse, suggested by Leleka, is that the use of new borrowings becomes an inevitable phenomenon, since these items denote "new standards of human existence in a new economical space" (2008, p. 296-299).

This chapter has shown that both Ukrainian and Russian are developing dynamically in the twenty first century. In comparison to Russian which under the influence of English has developed novoyaz (Russian + English), Ukrainian experiences double impact of the two predominant languages: Russian in Ukraine, and English in the world. It has resulted in appearance of the two dissimilar variants of Ukrainian surzhyk (Ukrainian + Russian) and ukrlish (Ukrainian + English) in the country where the latter, according to Radchuk differs first and foremost by featuring globalization (2008, p. 165).

The growing impact of English, as the third important language in the country, makes both Ukrainian and Russian open to English loanwords. This is also causing concern among many people. Though anglicisms are seen as a common phenomenon in media discourse, their use must be monitored by language regulators, as in other European countries.

## 4 Method

Since Ukraine is a bilingual country, media in the country is a source of information both in Ukrainian and Russian languages. The main problem of the current research is the influence of English on the discourse of the Ukrainian media, thus on the two languages. The investigation focuses on the penetration of new loanwords into the lexicons of the two languages.

This chapter addresses the hypothesis of the study which proposes the greater English impact on one of the languages, and the related research questions. It also provides a description of methods applied in the thesis in order to verify this prediction and to answer the research questions.

### 4.1 Hypothesis and research questions

The literature review illustrates that the spread of English in Ukraine, as in any other country of Kachru's Expanding circle (see Section 2), is obvious in different spheres on different levels despite the language spoken in the region. Though English is not the language of higher education in the country, an increased interest has come about for learning it at the school and even as early as the pre-school level. Lexical items not characteristic of the Ukrainian language can be distinctly observed while hearing, watching or reading information broadcasted in Ukraine. Their use is also present in the names of diverse public places, trademarks, contests, etc. The current study will investigate another level of the language use: English in written texts in Ukrainian online newspapers.

Number of non-indigenous words confirms the obvious impact of English on both languages spoken in Ukraine during the last decades of the twenty first century. The attempts to investigate the problem of loanwords in the Russian language have been made by many linguists (Maximova, 2007; Marinova, 1999; Yelenevskaya, 2008; Krysin, 2008, etc.). Studies on the problem of the English element in Ukrainian are comparatively few (Styshov, 2012; Radchuk, 2002; Fedorets', 2002; Karpilovs'ka, 2008, etc.). The majority of both Ukrainian and Russian linguists agree on the fact that the most important source for penetration of new lexical items, nowadays, is media, regarded as "the sphere of the full functioning of neologisms and borrowings" (Koval', 2000).

Many words imported into Ukrainian and Russian by English expand the language of mass media as well as everyday speech of their carriers. Some of the newly borrowed items coexist with words in the recipient vocabulary, whereas others can replace their native equivalents, or even previously borrowed words (Yelevskaia 2008, p. 104; Marinova, 1999). Thus, many words like (Ukr.) *сумиш* [sumish] and (Rus.) *смесь* [smes'], or (Ukr.) *відбір* [vidbir] and (Rus.) *отбор* [otbor] are often substituted by English *mix* and *casting*.

The presence of loanwords in the languages is undeniable, though the impact on them can differ. I am inclined to think that the use of anglicisms in different regions of Ukraine can also vary. The reason for it could be the mentioned de facto division of Ukraine on “East” and “West” (see Section 3.2), which caused divergence in peoples’ values and political orientations. East-part of Ukraine, found under the influence of Russia for centuries, is used to be regarded as pro-Russian taking into regards the language spoken in the region, recent propaganda of separatism and desire to belong to the “big” (I mean, Russia). Opposite to East, West-region has undergone comparatively few limitations from other European countries and has managed to preserve its national identity and language. Current search for democracy, freedom of utterance, justice and changes for the better is the reason of the West-bank’s choice to join the European Union. This causes the appearance of a larger number of new lexical items (within the sphere of politics) in Ukrainian than in Russian (see Section 3.5). The Centre of Ukraine shares European values, though still *speaks* mostly Russian (Mc Kishnie 2012, p. 29-30).

With regard to Russian as a former lingua franca of the Soviet Union and a wide-used international language, my hypothesis foresees the decreased flux and use of English loanwords in this language in comparison to Ukrainian. On the other hand, there are many examples of the use of loanwords in Russian, mainly old ones, which appeared because of the lack of their equivalents in the language (see Section 3.2). The latter fact makes me assume that the Russian language was formerly far more active in adopting foreign words than it is now. However, in Ukrainian, which previously strived to find its own counterparts to borrowed words, may presently contain many new loanwords.

Due to limitations, the study explores only one type of discourse, i.e. the newspaper discourse. Taking into regard that different newspapers can present the material differently, I decided it would be interesting to investigate the use of loans in two various types of newspaper which, as I suspect, may also differ.

It will definitely not take much effort and time to find an anglicism in youth publication, as far as media have recently become dominant in everyday life of adolescents. But how does this phenomenon look like in Ukrainian *adult* newspapers with the average and high Ukrainian newspapers readership? My objective here is to investigate in what kind of newspaper the impact of loanwords is more evident: high-brow edition or that with more entertaining content. The choice of the newspapers will be more thoroughly discussed further in Section 4.2.

I assume that many lexical innovations can be largely found in Culture and Entertainment articles of local newspapers (Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok), addressed to younger readers, in comparison to the texts of a newspaper with more *serious* content (Ukraïns'ka Pravda). Thus, I will compare material in Ukrainian and Russian from middle-market and high-brow newspapers. Since I make a comparative analysis of the two languages, Ukrainian and Russian, I consider it important to explore which of them has more *favourable* conditions for accommodation of new lexemes in its word stock. Analysis according to the language criterion will provide clarification on whether Ukrainian still takes an active part in searching and replacement of anglicisms and internationalisms by neologisms like in the beginning of the twentieth century (Wexler 1974, p. 129), and whether Russian is yet more inclined to integration of loanwords as it was in the middle of the twentieth century (Ryazanova-Clarke and Wade 1999, p. 36). The lexicon of the four editions will give an opportunity to compare figures of old borrowings and new loanwords within the two languages.

The main emphasis of the study is on new loanwords, which will enable me to consider how open to the use of English loans Ukrainian media is at the moment. New borrowings will be examined according to Graedler's levels of abstraction (see Section 1.4). This kind of analysis was necessary to include in the study in order to find the actual number of English elements in Ukrainian and Russian, and to compare it with the number of borrowings, which developed on their basis both in the receiving languages and in the source language before penetrating to them.

Section 1.4 provides a wide list of classifications of borrowings from different angles. One of these classifications concerns the levels of integration of loanwords in a new lexical environment. The analysis of anglicisms will be mainly based on the three stages of integration, namely, non-integration, semi-integration and the stage of full integration and

functioning of the loanwords. The question of integration will also be explained in Section 4.3, where I specify which way of describing integration I am going to follow and why.

Another aspect which seems interesting is the consideration of recent loans according to the degrees of their necessity in the languages (see Section 1.4). This analysis will enable to find out the reasons for borrowing of the English items detected in the material and explain the purpose with which they are used. The procedure of the analysis is in more detail described in Section 4.3 and 5.3.

Finally, I want to find out whether the words which have entered Russian and Ukrainian word stocks for the last two decades are similar, and in which semantic fields the use of English loanwords is the most frequent.

To sum up, my main hypothesis is that Ukrainian is more open to new English loanwords than Russian.

I also hypothesize that middle-market editions will have more recent loanwords than high-brow newspapers.

I will investigate this by:

1. looking at the numbers of old and new loanwords in Russian and Ukrainian middle-market and high-brow newspapers,
2. comparing the new loans at different levels of abstraction,
3. analyzing the degree of integration;
4. taking into regard the degrees of necessity.
5. and also looking at the actual loanwords and their semantic fields.

## **4.2 Study material**

New lexemes in the media are found as in the form of advertisements so in different types of news, broadcasted on TV, dailies and the Internet (Fedorets', 1997). Their use does not necessarily mean that mass media is a source of language change, but only a reflection of this change, which requires consideration. However, in comparison to radio and television, press (both printed and electronic) is perhaps the most available and the easiest way to detect them and analyze their usage. Therefore, in order to explore the frequency of the use of foreign

lexemes, namely English, I decided with the help of the Internet to examine the texts of Ukrainian newspapers.

Newspapers were chosen, first of all, for practical reasons, because written language is more permanent than spoken language, and the material on their on-line versions are available and easily downloaded and stored, and to be reached electronically whenever needed. Secondly, newspapers are one of the most significant channels of displaying language novelties and language change.

To address my main hypothesis about the impact of English on the Russian and Ukrainian word stocks, I chose newspapers from different regions, representatives of East, Centre and West of Ukraine.

The electronic newspaper **Donbass**, named after coal mining territory in Ukraine, is representative of Eastern Ukraine media. It focuses on a general Russian-speaking reader. The online newspaper introduces a number of rather short and little informative texts accompanied by a lot of pictures. Compared to other newspapers analyzed in the thesis, Donbass introduces the most extensive material from the month chosen: 154 articles with the total number of 53 103 words. The section of the newspaper under the title of “Culture” could be certainly named “Show-business”, as far as it contains description of music events, description of various TV-shows, interviews of Russian and Ukrainian music and film celebrities. Concerning world news, Donbass refers to other information sources, especially those of Russian that in fact, partially, confirms my assumption about the values and ideas propagated by East Ukrainian media. The information presented in the Donbass publications is expected to be popular among young generations. The newspaper belongs to the group of middle-marked editions and is available on [www.donbass.ua](http://www.donbass.ua).

**Ukrains’ka Pravda** is a highly respected newspaper in Ukraine with its central location in Kyïv. Since its foundation, it is one of the most trustworthy on-line editions in Ukraine. Ukrains’ka Pravda, similar to many other central editions, introduces written material both in Ukrainian and Russian. I, hereby, do not mean the material performed for reading in both variants depending on the language convenience, but separate articles published in different languages. The Russian part of Ukrains’ka Pravda represents 10 articles, with the total number of words 8 057, whereas Ukrainian part of Ukrains’ka Pravda contains 15 articles with 16 406 words. This electronic edition is characterized with a good command of literary



Ukrainian. While representing material authors refer to other, mainly on foreign sources, such as The Daily Mail, BBC News, Time, The Guardian, etc.

Both parts are characterized by a high frequency of old borrowings based on the Greek and Latin roots. Many of them are granted an international status. Still the use of such a variety of words does not make it so simple to understand the article entirely without basic knowledge of any Germanic or Romance language. The newspaper introduces a wider spectrum of themes mirrored in extended texts with a more informative content in comparison to Donbass. Articles which are more orientated on an educated and adult reader underline the status of the newspaper as a serious (high-brow) edition in the country. The principal topics of the newspaper are politics, economics and social issues, available on [www.pravda.com.ua](http://www.pravda.com.ua).

**Vysokyi Zamok** is a local newspaper in L'viv (Western Ukraine) published five days a week. It covers domains such as politics, economics, business, sports, etc. and much of the local news alike to Donbass. It is geared towards a regional Ukrainian-speaking reader. Similar to other newspapers of this area, Vysokyi Zamok is a pro-Ukrainian and pro-European edition which follows the events all over the world and broadcasts relevant information in the Western region. The material presented in Vysokyi Zamok is the shortest one in the text corpus, both by a number of articles (10) and a number of words (7 922). The domain of Culture in the online version of the newspaper contains, mostly interview-material concerning the life of well-known people in the sphere of Ukrainian and foreign show-business, cinematography and music. The content is tightly coherent with the title of the column in the newspaper - "Show business". The access to the edition is possible on [www.wz.lviv.ua](http://www.wz.lviv.ua).

The difference in titles between the two middle-market editions (Culture in Ukraïns'ka Pravda and Donbass and Show-business in Vysokyi Zamok) shows that the concept of Culture sometimes is substituted by the concept of Show business. This could potentially mean that under the influence of globalization the greater accent has been recently made on the development of entertainment industry (usually Americanized), rather than on the promotion of culture and arts. Therefore, a decision was made to merge both categories under a common one common and analyze the use of loans in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment.

The current online editions, which provide the data for the study, are chosen with the three main principles in mind directly related to the research questions of the study. The first of them is the geographical position in the country. The second principle is the language,

Ukrainian and Russian, in which the websites are edited. Finally, they present different type of editions: serious (Central region) and the newspapers with more entertaining content (representatives of Eastern and Western Ukraine).

Due to the limits of the study, the domain of Culture and Entertainment is the only domain I chose as a sample to demonstrate the English impact on the Ukrainian and Russian languages. This choice is based on several reasons. First of all, the sphere of Culture and Entertainment has not been explored thoroughly in the sense of language, except of few scattered studies are carried out on this issue (Popova and Petrova, 2013; Hurko, 2013). Secondly, loanwords in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment are also interesting because they say something more about other cultures and their interrelations, as well as to show possible coincidence of loans in Ukrainian and Russian in the context of cultural globalization. Thirdly, similar to spheres of Technology, Internet and communications, the sphere of Culture and Entertainment has tendency of being recently more productive in the case of language development. The appearance of different innovations like reality shows and world-wide popular contests; constant development in cinematography and music in the world can result in the appearance of many new words in the lexicon not only due to the source language (mainly American English) but their spread on other languages either, essentially contributing to their word stocks (Kushnariova, 2009; Maximova, 2007), in which the two Slavic languages are no exception. The final aspect which influenced the choice of this domain was the difference between the conclusions made by Ukrainian linguists Polishchuk and Hurko. Polishchuk claims that the professional terminology in the sphere of Culture does not fulfill its nominative and definite functions, but stylistically expressive ones, which makes it sound more up-to-date on the one hand, but less understandable on the other (Polishchuk 2012, p. 222). In contrast to Polishchuk, Hurko says that the words used to describe events and concepts in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment "have, mostly, no equivalents in the language" (Hurko, 2013, p. 8). This disagreement with findings questions also the matter of necessity of the use of loanwords in the languages, relevant to one of the objectives in the current paper. If Hurko is right, I would expect a larger number of necessary loans, and if Polishchuk is right, then more luxury loans would be expected in the corpus. However, according to my expectations, this sphere will have both types of loans, and that this will allow me to compare the languages and newspaper types, as well as to see whether any of them have more necessary loanwords than the other.

The material for the thesis is presented by the Culture/Show business sections from the three above mentioned online newspapers which were published during the month of November 2013. To investigate the use of loanwords in the given material, a set of criteria was worked out. It encompasses the following:

- each text has been taken under consideration irrespective of its size and theme;
- each title and subtitle have been included into analysis as they are regarded as a part of an author's article;
- dates of items' publication have not been counted as a part of the text, therefore are not analyzed;
- each article has been examined excluding texts in the form of descriptions or comments to an image;
- all pieces of advertisement, possibly seen on the website, have been not taken into account, as they are not a part of an author's work.

Table 4.1 shows the newspapers, numbers of articles and a total sum of words in the material. The three newspapers are placed according to their geographical position in the country: western, central and eastern. The central online edition is divided into two because it consists of both Russian and Ukrainian texts of different content. Therefore, these parts will be analyzed separately.

Table 4.1 The total material for November, 2013

Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.)	Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr. text)	Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus. text)	Donbass (Rus.)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 10articles</li> <li>• 7 922 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 15 articles</li> <li>• 16 406 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 9 articles</li> <li>• 8 057 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 154 articles</li> <li>• 53 103 words</li> </ul>

If to compare a size of the material in each edition, it differs from one another. Due to a limited selection of the newspapers available online, it was difficult to find ones which could fully meet all specification requirements, i.e. location, type and language. As we may see, the largest corpus is introduced by Donbass, a representative of the East Ukrainian media. Its material is almost seven times bigger than in the other publications. That is why I assumed that it would be useful to include into the investigation of only the first 30 articles with the number of words which more or less correspond to the number of words in other newspapers.

This will make the editions to be more directly comparable corpora. Many lexical units taken of the whole Donbass corpus will serve as samples of some interesting cases of the integration of loanwords in Russian, however, only those which are found in the first 30 articles will be included into the analysis. It will make it possible to examine the frequency of the use of new loans in more similar terms.

I must also mention that one of the articles of the Ukrainian part of *Ukraïns'ka Pravda* is introduced by two pieces of literature of Ukrainian writers. As far as they represent other styles of writing in comparison with the style maintained in mass media, I decided it to be a right thing to exclude them from the analysis. Therefore, the total number of words has been reduced to 8 319.

The next table 4.2 displays a total number of articles and words according to which the analysis of loanwords will be carried out.

Table 4.2 The material of the study

VysokyiZamok (Ukr.)	Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr. text)	Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus. text)	Donbass (Rus.)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 10 articles</li> <li>• 7 922 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 13 articles</li> <li>• 8 319 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 9 articles</li> <li>• 8 057 words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 30 articles</li> <li>• 8 628 words</li> </ul>

## 4.3 Method

I have to remind the reader that as a loanword I count a lexical unit which phonetically, morphologically or semantically sounds or looks differently from other items in the language it entered (see Section 1.5). The study is primarily focused on the investigation of recent borrowings. In spite of the original etymological source of the word, all new loanwords coming in from English will be regarded as "anglicisms" (see Section 2). The words *loan*, *loanword*, *anglicism* and *borrowing* are used interchangeably, with the purpose to avoid repetition and monotony in the text.

The list of requirements below shows which lexical units were filtered out of the analysis and which of them were included. According to it:

- no abbreviations or contractions are analyzed;

- equivalent in the receiving language is regarded as a native equivalent only in case it is expressed by one word;
- some of proper nouns such as geographical names, currency, websites, as well as titles of foreign films, records and theatre performances written in English, names of authors of articles and pictures and other personal names have been not taken into account;
- brand names, names films, bands, shows and performances which denote Russian and Ukrainian realities are included into the analysis even if they are written with the help of English letters or words;
- all anglicisms observed in the material are taken under consideration despite number, gender or declension they are found in.

To find the number of new loanwords in the respective editions, I went through the Russian- and Ukrainian-language material twice. The first reading was done in order to detect all borrowings in the texts and to group them according to the degree of their recency. This was done with a "dictionary look-up" method further described below. My aim was to separate the newest items from old borrowings and internationalisms, found in the dictionaries. Since this was done manually, another reading was done with the purpose to double-check that none of the loanwords were missed. After the lexemes were sorted according to recency, the numbers of frequency of anglicisms in the newspapers were compared.

In order to determine whether a Ukrainian or Russian loanword was old or new, I used recent general dictionaries: Ukrainian *Словник чужомовних слів* [Slovnyk chuzhomovnyh sliv] (1996) and Russian *Словарь иностранных слов в русском языке* [Slovar' innostrannyh slov v ruskom iazyke] (1996). The dictionaries were deliberately chosen to have the same year of edition. This enables me to find out which loanwords have been adopted into the languages and have thus entered the dictionaries, and which of them not. All the words that were found in the dictionaries are regarded as old borrowings. The rest of the lexical items, which have not been included in the lexicographical work preceding 1996, are counted as new loanwords, i.e. anglicisms. The new loanwords were further compared on different levels of abstraction and analyzed with respect to level of integration and necessity in order to explore the research questions outlined in 4.1.

In the study, all detected loanwords will be analyzed in regards to Graedler's levels of abstraction (see Section 1.5). The main part of the analysis is based on the comparison of the

use of loans namely according to the three levels: word-form level, lexeme level and standard-form level. The example-form level is excluded from the analysis since the orthography of loanwords on this level coincides with their written forms on the word-form level. The examination of anglicisms is carried out mainly on the standard-form level in order to find out the number of English elements which have penetrated into Ukrainian and Russian, not their descendants.

In Section 1.4, I provided several types of new loanwords (Yelenevskaya, 2008 and Haugen, 1950), and stages of their integration in the target language (Görlach, 2003). The classifications, on the basis of which the current analysis is carried out, are tightly coherent because each type of loanwords and their forms mirror the level of their assimilation in the receiving language. Görlach describes the four stages of nativization. However, I decided to exclude the last one from the analysis, as far as the consideration of lexical calques (translation loans) or semantic loans, as well as the use of phraseological units (idioms) and borrowed syntactic structures are out of the scope of the current study. This stage is rather similar with the third one with the only difference that a semantic loanword is more likely to become “identical with an indigenous item” in the language. If some foreign words become indistinguishable from native units (they may be also loans of earlier generations or internationalisms), it means that these words are most likely to be listed in the target language lexicography, and thus, they are regarded as old borrowings in the language. This category of words, therefore, will be used only for comparative purposes.

The first type of loans in the classification of Yelenevskaya (occasional insertions) is not found in Haugen’s classification and, as a result, remains without change under the category of non-integrated elements. The two categories which overlap in both classifications will be counted as one in the research, e.g. Haugen’s category of “loanwords” Yelenevskaya’s category of “barbarisms, or exoticisms” are included into the analysis under the title semi-integrated loanwords, and Yelenevskaya’s “loanwords” and Haugen’s “loanblends” create a group of fully integrated words. The last category in Haugen’s classification, “loanshifts”, was initially excluded from the analysis as far as it describes a specific variant of borrowings (calques, semantic loans) which, as mentioned, are not relevant to the study. Consequently, I divide all loanwords into three groups: non-integrated, semi-integrated and fully integrated loanwords.

1. *non-integrated* are the items, which occasionally occur in the Ukrainian and Russian languages preserving their phonological and morphological features as well as their foreign graphics (Latin script), e.g. *Dark Art, iTunes*;
2. *semi-integrated* are the loans, transliterated into recipient languages without morphemic substitution and are non-stable in the orthography. These are also the words which have not got derivatives in the language yet, only some inflexions, e.g. (Ukr.) *стендап* vs. *стенд-ан* [stendap] < *stand-up*, (Rus.) *еврибади* [evribadi] < *everybody*;
3. *fully-integrated* loanwords, which demonstrate their high level of integration getting nativized in the recipient language by means of both inflexions and derivatives: e.g. (Rus.) *хитовый* [hitovyj] < derived from *hit*, (Rus.) *интернет-обсуждения* [internet obsuzhdjenija] < *Internet discussions*.

The case concerning the necessity of loanwords explains the reason for the borrowing of loanwords. As mentioned in Section 1.2, by using a loanword a speaker may have two kinds of need: the need to be precise in the expression and the need to sound more accomplished, thus prestigious. All loanwords were divided into necessary and luxury loans according to the degree of their necessity in the language. The category of necessary loanwords includes the words which lack equivalents in Ukrainian and Russian and those which are understandable in the languages, but do not have a one-word equivalent. The category of luxury loans contains the words which have their counterparts in both languages and the words which have replaced older borrowings.

## 5 Results

The chapter presents findings and discussion of the current research. It starts with a general analysis of old and recent loanwords directed to compare the degree of acceptance of loans in former periods to that which takes place in Ukrainian and Russian at present. Section 5.2 provides the discussion of the factors which influence the use of anglicisms in the mass media discourse. The question of degrees of integration of borrowings in Ukrainian and Russian is explored in Section 5.3. The next unit of this chapter includes investigation of loanwords based on their necessity in the languages, with provided examination of reasons. Section 5.5 discusses the issue of overlapping words within the corpora. It is also aimed to explore the lexical integration of loanwords (see Section 1.4), i.e. to analyze which semantic fields they predominate in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment, and whether the language and newspaper type criteria influence the course of their distribution.

### 5.1 Numbers of old and new loanwords in the newspapers

The texts in the publications for November 2013 differ both in size and content, however, they share some general characteristics. The first common trend of all the four editions is a fairly high frequency of loanwords, but mainly old ones.

Although the analysis of old entries is not within the scope of this study, I would like to draw attention to the quantitative comparison between old and recent loanwords which were detected in the corpus. Table 5.1 provides occurrences of loanwords on Graedler's word-form level of abstraction (see Section 1.5). This level was chosen since it is an easier and faster way of calculating lexical units, and, furthermore, texts in the whole corpus are counted on the word-form level, too.

Herewith, I have to specify that old borrowings, which I additionally introduce in correlation with new ones, are the items borrowed into the Ukrainian and Russian languages during the twentieth century, and found in the considered dictionaries of foreign words. Many of these items have already become international and are widely used in different languages regardless the language family they belong to, e.g. *момент* [moment] < *moment*, *контакт* [kontakt] < *contact*, *програма* [prohrama] < *programme*, etc.



As recent loans, I consider lexical items which share phonological and morphological features of a foreign language (English) different from those which are characteristic to Ukrainian and Russian, and those which have undergone different stages of integration and are not listed in the dictionaries of foreign words, published in 1996. The latter aspect was a crucial determinant which made it possible for me to distinguish between old and new borrowings. A group of recent loanwords includes both lexemes which are borrowed from English directly (e.g. *кікбоксинг* [kikboksynh] < *kickboxing*, *шорт-лист* [short list] < *short list*) and units which have been modified after they entered the two Slavic languages (e.g. *креативный* [kreativnyj] < *creative*; *мон-тема* [top tema] < *top theme*).

Table 5.1 Distribution of former and new loanwords in the corpus

<i>Vysoky Zamok</i> (Ukr.)		<i>Ukraïns'ka Pravda</i> (Ukr.)		<i>Ukraïns'ka Pravda</i> (Rus.)		<i>Donbass</i> (Rus.)	
<b>7 922 words</b>		<b>8 319 words</b>		<b>8 057 words</b>		<b>8 628 words</b>	
Old	New	Old	New	Old	New	Old	New
764	128	1 007	94	994	98	935	170
<b>9,64 %</b>	1,62 %	<b>12,10 %</b>	1,13 %	<b>12,33 %</b>	1,22 %	<b>10,84 %</b>	1,97 %

Table 5.1 illustrates a high number of old entries which form about one tenth of all words found in *Vysoky Zamok* and *Donbass*, and even more than that in both parts of *Ukraïns'ka Pravda*. However, out of a total number of borrowings recent loanwords constitute a minor part in each newspaper.

These numbers can also be analyzed from different angles, namely, according to the type of newspaper and the language it is written in. A considerably greater number of old entries in both parts of *Ukraïns'ka Pravda* testifies to the fact the type of the newspaper may influence the choice of the material as well as lexicon required. The use of internationalisms and old borrowings based on Latin and Greek elements in this Ukrainian Central edition, additionally points toward it as a serious newspaper. I may assume that a higher number of former elements in *Ukraïns'ka Pravda* could, to some extent, be influenced by a more variable selection of topics in the newspaper. Another significant aspect is that the majority of old borrowings do not have equivalents in Ukrainian and Russian, which gives a main reason for

their frequent use. The use of such items could be intended to sound more accomplished compared to other publications.

As for the language criterion, West Ukrainian Vysokyi Zamok demonstrates the lowest rate of former borrowings in comparison with other editions (9, 64 %). I suspect that such a result can be the consequence of attempts of the local population (predominantly Ukrainian-speaking) to preserve and promote their mother tongue in the country. I have to remind the reader that the preference for native (even dialectal) words has always been a strong tendency in this part of Ukraine since the beginning of the twentieth century (see Section 3.2.). A slightly larger number of old lexemes are found in the East Ukrainian Donbass (10,84 %), which is another newspaper of the same (middle-market) kind. A slightly higher percent of old loanwords in the Russian part of Ukraïns'ka Pravda in comparison to the Ukrainian variant may also testify to a stronger tendency of the Russian language towards adoption of English lexemes. When comparing the frequency of old borrowings in the two Slavic languages based on the newspaper material, there are thus some indications that the language aspect may also play a role in the distribution of loans.

There are a relatively smaller number of new loanwords. Central Ukraïns'ka Pravda has only 1,13 % in the Ukrainian part and 1,22 % in the Russian one, which means that it is slightly higher for Russian than Ukrainian.

In comparison to Ukraïns'ka Pravda, Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass have a higher rate of recent loans, which constitutes respectively 1,62 % and 1,97 % in the two corpora, again slightly more for Russian. Both editions are middle-market newspapers, which depict events, mostly, within the sphere of show-business. The category which is taken as a sample in the investigation of Culture and Entertainment may be conventionally divided into two parts: the first one, *Culture*-content, might be more characteristic of Ukraïns'ka Pravda, and the sphere of *Entertainment* more considered in Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass. The difference between the newspapers may thus be a reflection of their content.

Examination of old and new loanwords, and also the cultural content of each online edition, has so far allowed me to start to address my research questions concerning the difference between types of the newspapers. A lexical study of the four editions reveals that a certain distinction between them is possible. The differentiation between the types of the newspapers seems to be a most significant determinant in the selection of vocabulary in the material.

To sum up, both variants of high-brow Ukraïns'ka Pravda include bigger number of old loans, but fewer occurrences of new loanwords compared to the middle-market Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass. According to the language criterion, the Russian-language editions present a slightly bigger percent of both old and new loans.

In my hypothesis, I predicted a major influence of English on Ukrainian, which meant a higher rate of new loanwords in comparison to Russian. The numbers point in the opposite direction, although the difference between the languages is very small, which means that so far my hypothesis does not agree with the findings. It seems, rather, to be only a question of the type of the newspaper. This issue will be discussed in more detail further in Section 5.2.

## **5.2 Comparison of numbers of new loanwords in terms of word forms, lexemes and standard forms**

In comparison with the first section, which includes exploration of the use of *all* loans on the word-form level, in this section I will make a more detailed analysis of the new loans based on the examination of these items on three levels: the word-form, lexeme and standard-form levels. Word-forms may not all belong to different lexemes or be related to the same English borrowing, the standard-form. The numbers of word-forms may hide differences in numbers of lexemes and standard forms.

I have to point out that the category of non-integrated borrowings which reflect Russian and Ukrainian reality in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment is not included into the analysis, based on the language and type of the newspaper aspects. It was determined taking in regards that this group of words is introduced, mainly, by proper names (e.g. *Maxim*, *Caramel*, etc.) and occasional phrasal insertions (e.g. *Going small to make it big*; *sex appeal*) without their translation or transliteration into the considered languages. On the word-form level, the number that this class of words constitutes is 8 in Vysokyi Zamok, 10 in the Ukrainian part and 12 in the Russian part of Ukraïns'ka Pravda, and 17 items in Donbass. Whereas the primary emphasis of the study is made on the investigation of the behaviour and progress of newly borrowed lexemes within Russian and Ukrainian, such nouns are not likely to further integrate or develop in the languages, thus, are not proper for this kind of analysis. Out of the total number of loanwords on the same level, 120 units in Vysokyi Zamok, 84 in Ukraïns'ka

Pravda (Ukr. part), 86 in Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus. part) and 153 in Donbass are relevant to the analysis.

As mentioned earlier, all anglicisms are divided into three levels of abstraction. I dropped consideration of borrowings on the example-form level, because loans are predominantly identical in their orthography, and therefore, the number of example forms coincides with the number of word forms.

Figure 5.1 Sample of calculation of English elements in the corpus of Donbass

Lexeme level	Standard form
1. шоу (7) < show	ШОУ < SHOW (12)
2. телешоу (2) < TV show	
3. шоу-бізнес (1) < show business	
4. талант-шоу (1) < talent show	
5. шоумен (1) < showman	

Loanwords on the lexeme level display the items underlying sets of inflections, whereas the standard-form presents the English elements that have been used in various lexemes. Figures taken in brackets imply the number of occurrences found in the corpus. For instance, one English element (standard form) *шоу* [shou] < *show* is the basis of 5 newly created lexemes, which on the word-form level constitute in total 12 hits in the newspaper Donbass. This principle of calculation was applied to the whole corpus.

The identification of standard forms and lexemes will be useful for the further analysis in sections 5.3-5.5. Standard forms, which deal with separate English elements that have entered the languages, will further be useful in the investigation of the necessity of loans in the languages. Loanwords on the lexeme level will enable me to explore how integrated and how productive (in terms of word formation) the English elements are and what semantic fields they belong to.

Table 5.2 shows the numbers of word-forms, lexemes and standard-forms in the four sub-corpora. Percentages are only given for the word-form level, since it is based on the total number of words, which are also word forms. Note, that the percentages are lower than that in Table 5.1 because non-integrated borrowings have been disregarded (see above).

Table 5.2 Distribution of loanwords in the four newspapers

Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.) (7 922)			Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr.) (8 319)			Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus.) (8 057)			Donbass (Rus.) (8 628)		
Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word- form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form
46	62	120	44	53	84	44	54	86	53	76	153
		1,55 %			1,01 %			1,07 %			1,77 %

We see that the tendencies on the word-form level are the same even when non-integrated words are left out: there are more tokens of loanwords in the tabloids than the serious newspapers and slightly more in Russian than Ukrainian. However, this difference does not seem to come from a higher number of English elements being borrowed. The sub-corpora have very similar numbers of standard forms, although Donbass seem to have slightly more, probably because this corpus is slightly larger. Rather, the middle-market editions seem to use more lexemes based on the same standard-forms than the serious newspapers and more word forms of each of these lexemes.

To make comparison of words on all three levels visually easier, I decided to find their approximate coefficients (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Rational correlation of loanwords

Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.) (7 922)			Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr.) (8 319)			Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus.) (8 057)			Donbass (Rus.) (8 628)		
Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word- form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form	Standard -form	Lexeme	Word -form
1	1,3	2,8	1	1,2	1,9	1	1,2	1,9	1	1,4	2,9

Analysing ratios of recent loanwords on the three levels, we see that the ratio of English loans on the lexeme level in the lowbrow editions (Vysokyi Zamok - 1,3 and Donbass - 1,4) is slightly higher than that in the serious newspapers on the same level (1,2 in both parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda). The ratio of standard forms to word forms is 1 to 1,9 within the Russian and Ukrainian variants of Ukraïns'ka Pravda, whereas in Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass the rate of word forms is almost three times higher than standard forms, i.e. 1:2,8, and 1:2,9, respectively. The difference of the coefficients in the editions means that the tabloids are more inclined to the use of anglicisms on the word form level and are more productive on the lexeme level, in comparison to the high-brow editions.

The results based on different levels of abstraction indicate that there is a clear-cut distinction in the use of loans within the four sub-corpora, when the newspaper type is taken as a starting point. The number of recent loanwords on the word-form level in the middle-market newspapers is nearly twice as high as that in the serious editions. Slightly different distributions of borrowings in Ukrainian and Russian, in which the latter contains insignificantly higher number of loans, for example, on the standard form level, may be explained both by a slightly bigger corpus of Russian-language Donbass, and the variety of the material in the two newspaper types. This finding makes it currently difficult to answer the main research question on what language is more influenced by English, Ukrainian or Russian, as far as the results seem rather similar according to the language criterion, and therefore cannot generalize the impact of English on a specific language from a single case.

The investigation on the three levels of abstraction may be useful in the further analysis, namely in the examination of degrees of integration in the next section. A little higher number of lexemes based on the English elements (that highlights active participation of loans in different word-formation processes) in the tabloids may predict a larger number of fully-integrated items in comparison to the serious editions.

### **5.3 Levels of integration**

In the current section I investigate the formal integration (see Section 1.5) of recently imported anglicisms in the two Slavic languages. I compare the use of more and less integrated loanwords in the Russian and Ukrainian data and in the two types of the newspaper. The examination is done with the identified standard-forms as a starting point. The possibility of inflecting these forms and of deriving new lexemes from them is investigated.

In this analysis, all the loanwords will be divided into three groups, each of which indicates a certain stage of integration a word is found in. The first-stage involves non-integrated items, which differ from other words first of all by their foreign script. The words on the second level (semi-integrated) are units which have been transliterated into the Slavic languages, but demonstrate very few signs of integration (few inflections, weak derivation). The final stage involves fully-integrated units, i.e. loans which function in the language analogically to native words regardless of their origin. The division seems rather simple. Still there are some cases

when it is not distinctly clear on which level of assimilation some words are. This is the case especially with the groups of second- and third-stage items. I would therefore like to start by describing some problematic cases in order to clarify what units I counted as well-integrated and which as semi-integrated items, and why.

The category of fully-integrated units seems to be the most extended and includes standard forms which differ from those in the other two groups by the diversity of their inflections and the lexemes that can be derived from them. In the process of my study, I found some patterns which look similar to one another but behave differently. Apart from entering into Ukrainian and Russian derivations, this group of standard forms is found in a high number of loan blends, or hybrids, composed on the basis of English and Russian/Ukrainian elements. A pattern in which the English element comes first is more common than a pattern where it comes last. The compounds also differ in the manner of their usage. As a consequence, I distinguish three subcategories of loan blends:

- loanblends, in which the English element **does not conjugate** in the word combination, but can be used **independently**, and may be inflected. For example, the English items *rock* and *pop* are not declined when used in compound, such as *рок-музикант* [rok muzykant] < *rock musician* (Vysoky Zamok), *нон-невес* [pop pevets] < *pop singer* (Donbass), although they can be used separately and be declined as in *роком* (instrumental case), *рока* (genitive case) in Russian; or, *нонса* [popsa] < *pop* (nominative case) found in both languages;
- loanblends, in which the English element **does not decline**, and is **not** used **autonomously** either. One example found in the corpus is the word *art* in combination with Ukrainian and Russian elements, such as (Ukr.) *арт-книга* [art knyha] < *art book*, (Rus.) *арт-критика* [art kritika] < *art critics*. Among them are also (Ukr.) *бек*, (Rus.) *бэк* [bek] < *back*, *панк* [pank] < *punk*, *кавер* [kaver] < *cover*, etc.
- loanblends, in which the English component **does not conjugate**, but can function **independently**, like the words in the first subgroup. The difference between them is the **inability** of the current items **to decline** even when they are **used alone**, e.g. *вудеоработа* [videorabota] < *video work*, *вудеоряд* [videorjad] *video row*, etc. (Donbass). The loanword *video* is used frequently in the text, but exclusively in the nominative case, without any sign of inflection.

An interesting tendency I have noticed is that foreign words which end in the vowel sounds o [ɔ], y [u], e [e], and i [ɪ] do not have declensions in the languages, e.g. *uoy* [shou] < *show*, *караоке* [karaoke] < *karaoke*, *нанappaццi* [paparatstsi] < *paparazzi*. This grammatical feature is also described in works on Ukrainian vocabulary. The section on the conjugation of foreign words in *Ukraïns'kyy pravopys* (*Ukraïns'kyy pravopys* 2006-2014) expands the list of those with the endings e [je], ю [ju], ї [ji] and йо [jɔ]. In Russian, the chapter on indeclinable nouns (*Akademik* 2000-2014) also refers to this class of words, lexemes which end in e [je], э [e], и [i], o [ɔ], y [u] and stressed a [a]. Such words form a group of exceptions in Ukrainian and Russian.

It could be argued that the standard forms used in the second and third group of loan blends are only weakly integrated. According to the grammatical rules of Ukrainian and Russian, foreign words with vowels at the end (except [a] in Ukrainian) are not likely to undergo further changes in the process of integration. However, many of these items are observed to be very productive in the processes of word formation, where they often play a central part. That is why these loanwords will all be included in the group of well-established lexical units. To avoid splitting up the third category of integration into several subgroups, I would thus like to emphasize that standard forms which, one way or another, contribute to the creation of new lexical units by various means of word formation, including lexical hybrids, will all be included in the group of well-integrated items.

The next group of words which requires consideration is semi-integrated items. In this group I include two kinds of lexemes. The first are those which do not conjugate (used only in the nominative case). These words often have one or more equivalents in Russian/Ukrainian, which may contribute to their slower nativization in the receiving language. Among them are such lexemes as *ваїфаї* [vajfaj] < *wi fi*, *фэнтези* [fentezi] < *fantasy film*, etc. Many of these importations are generally used by younger generations.

The second type is constituted by words which greatly differ from native items due to their preserved morphological features of the source language, and have corresponding words in the receptor languages. Due to their consonant endings, they are more likely to quickly integrate in the languages. Therefore, such anglicisms may immediately enter the system of declensions (number, gender, case), after they are first used. Examples of such lexemes are (Ukr.) *хоррор* [horor] < *horror film*, (Rus.) *шорт-лист* [short-list] < *short list*, (Ukr.) *хештег* [heshteg] < *hashtag*, (Rus.) *пост-продакшн* [post prodakshn] < *post production*. As



a native speaker of Ukrainian, and as a fluent speaker of Russian, I would claim that these words are not fully recognized or assimilated in the languages. They have integrated only on the level of inflectional morphology, not derivational, being non-productive in word formation. Moreover, it is doubtful that it will happen soon, since the use of such items with affixes may cause some difficulty in pronunciation. The absence of derivatives, mentioned by Marinova (see Section 1.4), and preservation of their English characteristics in spelling, pronunciation and morphology, according to Hoffmann (see Section 1.5) confirms the fact that such words remain only partially assimilated in the languages. Consequently, I include such loans in the class of barbarisms, i.e. semi-integrated loanwords.

The most logical way of analysing integration is based on the examination of loanwords on the standard-form level; the lexemes they can enter into, and the word forms they can have, is an indication of their level of integration. In counting the proportion of English elements in the corpus, I encountered an additional problem. As mentioned before, words in the group of well-established items have developed in the languages by means of derivation or word-compounding (mostly hybridical). The question is what to do with the words which include more than one English element. For example, (Ukr.) *сноубординг* [snoubordynh] < *snowboarding*, consists of *сноу* and *бординг*, which combines two elements combined in one lexeme. These elements are not usually used separately either in Russian or Ukrainian, as the lexeme was borrowed as a whole. To deal with this problem, I have decided to count as a standard form an element which can both be used independently in the language and actively take part in word formation. Otherwise, the splitting of such items and counting all their elements as separate standard forms may lead to a larger number of standard forms than warranted.

Table 5.4 Distribution of loanwords on the standard-form level according to degrees of integration

Degree of integration	Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.)		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr.)		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus.)		Donbass (Rus.)	
<b>Non-integrated</b>	7	13 %	7	14 %	9	17 %	13	20 %
<b>Semi-integrated</b>	23	43 %	15	32 %	19	36 %	23	35 %
<b>Fully-integrated</b>	23	43 %	28	54 %	25	47 %	30	45 %
<b>Total</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>100 %</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100 %</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>100 %</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>100 %</b>

The figures in 5.4 show that the least numerous category in this analysis is the group of non-integrated items, from one tenth to almost one fifth of all occurrences on the standard form level. Their most frequent use is observed in the Donbass newspaper. The high rate of

occasional insertions in this edition may be explained, first of all, by a strong preference of the Ukrainian beau monde for foreign names, for examples the names of singers (*Varda*, *Two Voices*), restaurants (*Gardel*), magazines (*Maxim*), TV-programmes (*X-фактор* [X-factor]), etc., which are either spelled with the Latin alphabet or taken from English directly.

The group of fully-assimilated items constitute a clear majority in Ukraïns'ka Pravda, where they make up about half of all occurrences. They also make up more than a third in Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok. But here the percentage of well-established anglicisms is almost equal to the rate of semi-integrated items: 39% on the second level and 41 % on the third in Donbass, and an equal 43 % on both levels in Vysokyi Zamok. This means that the middle-market newspapers are more likely to use newly borrowed items and possibly look more updated than Ukraïns'ka Pravda. The percentage of partially nativized items in both parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda is substantially lower than that of fully-integrated items. This is probably connected with the content these editions present, in which they try to maintain the serious *image* of the newspaper, and follow standard norms of Russian and Ukrainian.

The findings described in this section confirm those in Sections 5.1 and 5.2. They show that there is little difference in the use of loanwords depending on language, and that if there is any indication of a small difference, it goes towards a slightly higher use of less integrated loan words in Russian. However, these differences are very small and might not reach significance. A larger corpus would be needed to decide the issue. When it comes to types of newspapers, however, there are clear differences. A higher number of loans on the lexeme level in tabloids (see Section 2), which could possibly contribute to the percentage of fully-integrated items, has not influenced the final results. The middle-market newspapers have a larger proportion of semi-integrated items than the serious newspaper.

## **5.4 Degrees of necessity**

This section contains an examination of the English loanwords on the basis of their *necessity* in the languages, i.e. the reasons for borrowing and use of each loanword. In Section 1.2 I discussed different aspects which could influence the appearance of anglicisms in the languages. The main division, according to which I am going to sort the words, is the division of units into necessary and luxury loans, made on the basis of the lack or the existence of native equivalents. This analysis will complement those in sections 5.1–5.3, giving a fuller

picture of the use of English loanwords. Even though the Russian and Ukrainian corpora have been found to contain similar numbers of loanwords (on different levels of abstraction as well as with respect to level of integration), there might still be a difference with respect to why loanwords are used. In this section, I aim to find out whether any of the languages use more luxury loans than the other, and whether the same can be said for different types of newspapers.

Just like in section 5.2, the group of non-integrated items is excluded from the analysis. This is because the non-integrated items found in the corpus were either names or phrases. The reasons for choosing a foreign name is different from the choice of words generally and the procedure I am going to use cannot easily be applied to names or to phrases.

The investigation is conducted on the standard form level, as lexemes and word forms are directly dependent on the borrowed standard form.

To determine whether the standard forms found in the newspapers had Ukrainian or Russian equivalents, I used the Ukrainian dictionary *Slovyk chyzhomovnykh sliv* (1996) and Russian *Slovar innostrannykh slov v russkom yazyke* (1996). When no equivalent was found or the loanword is not translatable, it was assumed that speakers had borrowed and used it because of necessity. The items which had at least one corresponding word each, but are still used in the language, were counted as luxury loanwords. Their use may be explained by other reasons, for example a speaker's wish to sound more modern and expressive. Even though this seems like a straightforward procedure, there were certain cases which required greater attention:

➤ Some words which were borrowed previously, have presently gained another meaning, apart from those described in the Russian or Ukrainian dictionaries, for example, *формат* [format] < *format*, which the Russian dictionary describes as 1) model for imitation; 2) size of a book, letter; length of a line; 3) length and height of a type page; and the Ukrainian dictionary as a size (dimensions) of a sheet of paper, book, etc. Nowadays, however, the word *format* is, mostly, known as a mode, or style, which an arrangement, event or activity is held in. Such words were not likely to develop the new meaning in Ukrainian and Russian on their own, and they have counterparts, or at least explanations, in the native languages. In the process of globalization, such loanwords are probably borrowed into the languages for a

second time, and, as they have equivalents in this new meaning, they are considered luxury loans.

➤ There was a problem with finding proper equivalents for some loanwords, which could save the precise meaning that a situation aimed to convey. Even the nearest native word might lack the same amount of cultural information and sound unnatural or awkward in a given context. In such cases, the loanwords were granted the status of “necessary”, e.g. Ukr. *ексклюзивний* [ekskliuzyvnyi] vs. *винятковий*, *виключний*, which are closer to Eng. *exceptional*.

The list of standard forms found in the corpus, may be divided four different groups:

1. those which have no equivalents either in Ukrainian or Russian, e.g. Rus. *клип*, Ukr. *кліп* [klip] < *clip*, Rus. *видео*, Ukr. *відео* [video] < *video*;
2. frequently used items in the language of mass media, understandable for the majority of Ukrainians, but difficult to find a proper equivalent to, or with a many-words-equivalent, e.g. Rus. *нуар*, Ukr. *ніар* [piar] < *PR*, Rus., Ukr. *формат* [format] < *format*;
3. elements which have old counterparts, previously also borrowed, e.g. Rus. *хит*, Ukr. *хіт* [hit] < *hit* vs. Rus., Ukr. *шлягер* [shliager] < old German *slager*, Rus. *фитнесс*, Ukr. *фітнес* [fitnes] < *fitness*, which is used to be known as Rus. *гимнастика*, Ukr. *гімнастика* [himnastyka] < *gymnastics*, Greek in origin.
4. items which have native counterparts: *design* vs. Rus. *оформление* [oformleniie], Ukr. *оформлення* [oformlennia], *casting* vs. Rus. *отбор* [otbor], Ukr. *відбір* [vidbir].

Lexical units which belong to the first two groups, I refer to the class of necessary words, as far as they lack whether one-word equivalent or semantically precise counterpart in the languages, and the latter two to the group of luxury loanwords.

Table 5.5 Classification of loanwords according to reasons of usage (standard-form level)

	Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.) 7922		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr.) 8319		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus.) 8057		Donbass (Rus.) 8628	
<b>Units with no equivalent</b>	<b>17</b>	37 %	<b>14</b>	33 %	<b>15</b>	34 %	<b>20</b>	38 %
<b>Untranslatable items</b>	<b>11</b>	24 %	<b>9</b>	21 %	<b>8</b>	18 %	<b>13</b>	25 %
<b>Necessary loanwords</b>	<b>28</b>	61 %	<b>23</b>	53 %	<b>23</b>	52 %	<b>33</b>	62 %
<b>New-for-old items</b>	<b>4</b>	9 %	<b>5</b>	12 %	<b>7</b>	16 %	<b>5</b>	9 %
<b>Units with native counterparts</b>	<b>14</b>	30 %	<b>15</b>	35 %	<b>14</b>	32 %	<b>15</b>	28 %
<b>Luxury loanwords</b>	<b>18</b>	39 %	<b>20</b>	47 %	<b>21</b>	48 %	<b>20</b>	38 %
	<b>46</b>		<b>43</b>		<b>44</b>		<b>53</b>	

The distribution of loanwords according to the criterion of their necessity in the languages demonstrates a higher rate of necessary items than that of luxury loans in all four editions. This means that the use of anglicisms, in more than half the cases, is justified by the absence of counterparts in Ukrainian or Russian. Again, we see little difference between the two languages, but clear differences between newspaper types. The interesting fact is that the highest frequency of necessary anglicisms is observed in the middle-market newspapers, most of all in *Vysoky Zamok*. This means that the higher frequency of semi-integrated loanwords described in the previous section is not due to luxury loans. They are not used just because the newspapers wish to sound modern, but because they write about concepts that cannot be adequately described with native vocabulary. The larger number of necessary loans must then be linked to the entities and realities that are referred to in the newspapers, and we may expect to see a difference here between the serious newspaper and the middle-market ones. The latter have mainly loanwords from the field of music and lexicon connected with the show business sector. An almost equal numbers of necessary loanwords in these editions may be explained by the likeness of their topics, discussed below.

The similarity of findings within the middle-market and serious publications again stresses that the newspaper type is a major factor in the distribution of anglicisms.

## **5.5 Shared loanwords**

In sections 5.2 and 5.3, I found out that the language factor plays a minor role in the distribution of loanwords. This was proved by quite similar numbers of loans across the four Ukrainian and Russian sub-corpora. This section is aimed to explore whether the loanwords which penetrated into the languages, are the same, or whether they just happen to be of the same number. The investigation of the overlap of anglicisms within the whole corpus might enable me to answer this question.

Before starting the analysis in terms of overlap between the words used in the newspapers, I would like to mention that the group of non-integrated items was again excluded from the analysis because it represents, predominantly, stage names, names of companies, etc. and occasional insertions, which do not belong in the category of common words and are not likely to be found in a dictionary.

The current analysis was carried out mainly on the standard-form level of abstraction, simultaneously paying attention to the lexeme and word-form levels of the loanwords listed in the table below (see Table 5.6). The standard-form level was chosen to reveal which roots have been recently borrowed into the languages, and now provide the bases of newly formed units in Russian and Ukrainian. Numbers given in brackets show in how many lexemes (L) and word-forms (W) the standard forms occur.

Table 5.6 introduces a general quantitative overview of loanwords on the three levels of abstraction. I visually divided these words into four sections according to how many newspapers had them in common. As one may notice, only 4 words are common to all the four corpora. These are *show*, *media*, *exclusive* and *Internet*. The second section displays standard forms found in the four corpora; the third one contains those found in only two corpora, whereas the fourth shows standard forms unique to each newspaper.

Table 5.6 A list of anglicisms used in the articles

№	Donbass (Rus.)	Ukrains'ka Pravda (Rus.)	Ukrains'ka Pravda (Ukr.)	Vysoky Zamok (Ukr.)
1.	Шоу < show (L-5, W- 12)	Шоу (L-2, W-2)	Шоу (L-1, W-2)	Шоу (L-9, W-45)
2.	Медиа < media (L-1, W-1)	Медиа (L-2, W- 3)	Медіа (L-2, W-2)	Медіа (L-1, W -1)
3.	Эксклюзивный < exclusive (L-1, W-1)	Эксклюзивный (L-1, W-1)	Ексклюзивний (L-1, W-3)	Ексклюзивний (L-1, W-1)
4.	Интернет < Internet (L-3, W-3)	Интернет (L-1, W-1)	Інтернет (L-1, W-2)	Інтернет (L-1, W-1)
5.	Клип < clip (L-1, W - 10)	Клип (L-1, W-1)	-	Кліп (L-1, W-1)
6.	Видео < video (L-2, W-5)	Видео (L-1, W-5)	-	Відео (L-1, W-2)
7.	Секс- < sex (L-2, W-3)	Секс- (L-1, W-2)	-	Секс- (L-1, W-2)
8.	Сайт < site (L-2, W-16)	Сайт (L-1, W-1)	Сайт (L-1, W-2)	-
9.	Супер- < super (L-2, W-2)	Супер- (L-2, W-2)	-	Супер (L-2, W-3)
10.	Формат < format (L-1, W-4)	-	Формат (L-1, W-2)	Формат (L-1, W-1)
11.	Дизайн < design (L-2, W-2)	-	Дизайн (L-2, W-3)	Дизайн (L-3, W-6)
12.	Рок < rock (L-5, W-5)	-	Рок (L-1, W-2)	Рок (L-3, W-5)
13.	Рейтинг < rating (L 1, W-7)	-	-	Рейтинг (L-1, W-2)
14.	Кастинг < casting (L-1, W-3)	-	-	Кастинг (L-1, W-6)
15.	Папарацци < paparazzi (L-1, W-1)	-	-	Папараці (L-1, W-2)
16.	Креативный < creative (L-1, W-1)	-	-	Креатив (L-2, W-2)
17.	Драйв < drive (L-1, W-2)	-	-	Драйв (L-1, W-2)
18.	ТВ- TV (L-2, W-3)	-	-	ТБ - (L-1, W-2)
19.	Грандиозный < grandiose (L-1, W-1)	-	-	Грандіозний (L-1, W-1)
20.	Хит < hit (L-2, W-5)	-	-	Хіт (L-1, W-1)
21.	Поп- < pop (L-1, W-1)	-	-	Поп- (L-1, W-1)
22.	Анимация < animation (L-1, W-1)	Анимированный (L-2, W-2)	-	-
23.	Фэнтези < fantasy (L-1, W-2)	Фэнтези (L-1, W-3)	-	-
24.	Плейбой < playboy (L-2, W-2)	Плейбой (L-1, W-1)	-	-
25.	Гей < gay (L-2, W-2)	Гей (L-1, W-1)	-	-
26.	Ролик < roller (L-1, W-1)	-	Ролик (L-1, W-1)	-
27.	Шорт-лист < short list (L-1, W-1)	-	Шорт-ліст (L-1, W-1)	-

28.	Стрип- < strip (L-1, W-1)	-	Стріп- (L-1, W-1)	-
29.	Евро- < Euro (L-3, W-16)	-	Євро- (L-1, W-2)	-
30.	Блог < blog (L-2, W-2)	-	Блог (L-1, W-2)	-
31.	-	Комфортный < comfortable (L-1, W-1)	-	Комфортный (L-1, W-1)
32.	-	Тренд < trend (L-1, W-1)	-	Тренд (L-1, W-1)
33.	-	Перформанс < performance (L-2, W-3)	Перформанс (L-2, W-3)	-
34.	-	Арт- < art (L-2, W-2)	Арт (L-5, W-7)	-
35.	-	Наративность < narrativity (L-1, W-1)	Нарація (L-1, W-1)	-
36.	-	-	Джинси < jeans (L-1, W-1)	Джинси (L-1, W-1)
37.	-	-	Менеджер < manager (L-2, W-2)	Менеджер (L-1, W-1)
38.	-	-	Комп'ютер < computer (L-2, W-3)	Комп'ютер (L-1, W-2)
39.	-	-	Фітнес < fitness (L-1, W-1)	Фітнес (L-3, W-3)
40.	Рэп < rap (L-2, W-2)	Медиум < medium (L-1, W-14)	Рідер < reader (L-1, W-6)	Сноубординг < snowboarding (L-1, W-1)
41.	Сингл < single (L-1, W-2)	Прайм-тайм < prime time (L-1, W-1)	Бум < boom (L-1, W-2)	Імідж < image (L-1, W-5)
42.	Онлайн < online (L-1, W-2)	Триллер < thriller (L-1, W-3)	Реліз < release (L-1, W-3)	Кайт-серфінг kitesurfing (L-1, W-1)
43.	Контент < content (L-1, W-5)	Тандем < tandem (L-1, W-1)	Хештег < hash tag (L-1, W-1)	Дайвінг < diving (L-1, W-1)
44.	Трек < track (L-1, W-1)	Тайм-аут < time-out (L-1, W-1)	Смартфон < smartphone (L-1, W-1)	Унісекс < unisex (L-1, W-1)
45.	Трейлер < trailer (L-1, W-1)	Мастурбация < masturbation (L-1, W-1)	Буккросинг < book crossing (L-1, W-2)	Бокс < box (L-1, W-1)
46.	Чарт < chart (L-1, W-1)	Глянцевый < glance (L-1, W-1)	Латоп < laptop (L-1, W-1)	Райдер < rider (L-1, W-1)
47.	Сериал < serial (L-2, W-4)	Комикс < comics (L-1, W-1)	Маркер < marker (L-1, W-2)	Фікс < fix (L-1, W-1)
48.	Треники < trainers (L-1, W-1)	Инсталляция < installation (L-2, W-4)	Принт < print (L-1, W-1)	Тизер < teaser (L-1, W-1)
49.	Диск < disc (L-1, W-3)	Экстрасенсорный < extrasensory (L-1, W-1)	Кросівки < crossfit shoes (L-1, W-2)	Хол < hall (L-1, W-1)
50.	Пиар < p.r. (L-1, W-1)	Трафик < traffic (L-1, W-2)	Рейдер < raider (L-1, W-1)	Степ < step (L-1, W-1)
51.	Бэк- < back (L-1, W-1)	Хоррор < horror (L-1, W-4)	Профайл < profile (L-1, W-1)	Пілатес < pilates (L-1, W-1)
52.	Скайп < skype (L-1, W-1)	Вестерн < western (L-1, W-1)	Скотч < scotch (L-1, W-1)	Кікбоксинг < kickboxing (L-1, W-1)
53.	Портал < portal (L-1, W-1)	Краудфандинг < crowdfunding (L-1, W-1)	Флешка < flash card (L-1, W-2)	Бодібілдер < bodybuilder (L-1, W-1)
54.	Мачо < macho (L-1, W-1)	Римейк < remake (L-1, W-1)	Інтим < intim (L-1, W-2)	Пол-денс < pole dance (L-1, W-1)
55.	Панк < punk (L-1, W-1)	Вайфай < wifi (L-1, W-1)	Кед и < cad shoes (L-1, W-1)	Паб < pub (L-1, W-1)
56.	Кеп < cap (L-1, W-1)	Интервенция < intervention (L-1, W-1)	Лейтмотив < latemotive (L-1, W-1)	Стиліст < stylist (L-1, W-1)
57.	Вэб- < web (L-2, W-2)	Стрит < street (L-1, W-1)	Модерн < modern (L-1, W-3)	Мюзикл < musical (L-1, W-1)
58.	Рунет < ru.net (L-1, W-1)	Фешн < fashion (L-1, W-1)	Логістичний < logistic (L-1, W-2)	Стронгмен < strongman (L-1, W-1)
59.	Топ- < top (L-1, W-1)	Гот < goth (L-1, W-1)	Бар < bar (L-1, W-1)	Лазер < laser (L-1, W-2)
60.	Вау < wow (L-1, W-1)	Аудио- < audio (L-2, W-3)	Плед < plaid (L-1, W-1)	
61.	Х-фактор < X-factor (L-1, W-3)	Монитор < monitor (L-1, W-1)	Бестселер < bestseller (L-1, W-1)	
62.	Камеди Клуб < Comedy Club (L-1, W-1)	Клаустрофобический < claustrophobic (L-1, W-1)	Модератор < moderator (L-2, W-3)	
63.		Цунами < tsunami (L-1, W-1)		
64.		Экзорцист < exorcist (L-1, W-1)		
65.		Эскапада < escapade (L-1, W-1)		
66.		Гламурный < glamorous (L-1, W-2)		
67.		Мастер-класс < master class (L-1, W-1)		

The four shared elements fall under the category of necessary words as far as they do not have precise equivalents in both Ukrainian and Russian. Other cases present occurrences of overlapping standard forms within two or three of the sub-corpora. The case in which standard forms are unique just to one sub-corpus is more problematic because of the limited data. In regard to this, I have to emphasize that if there are words which are found within the material in a Ukrainian-language edition but missing in the Russian texts, it does not mean that they are lacking in the Russian language overall, and visa versa. For being quite sure that all loanwords occur in both languages, a larger corpus is needed.

According to the type of newspaper, the overlap was basically useful in examining how similar the newspapers are in the material they cover. The comparison of standard forms within Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok, and the two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda shows that the first two corpora share 20 items, whereas the latter two only 8. The usage of similar items in the middle-market newspapers is more than twice as high as that in the serious editions. This probably means that the middle-market newspapers are more similar in the topics they cover whereas the two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda are more variable in the selection of themes. However, when comparing the number of occurrences in the middle-market newspapers with the high-brow edition taken as one, the calculation shows that Donbass and Ukraïns'ka Pravda share 21 items, whereas the number of common loanwords between Vysokyi Zamok and Ukraïns'ka Pravda are 17. It means that Ukraïns'ka Pravda is more likely to share the loanwords with Donbass than Vysokyi Zamok.

In the previous sections, we have seen that the middle-market Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass pattern together as far as they both contain a larger number of necessary loanwords and at the same time a higher number of semi-integrated items. In comparison to them, the two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda share the highest rates of fully-integrated units, though the class of luxury loans in both of them outnumbers that in the low brow editions. How can these findings be explained? At least a tentative answer to this question can be given by exploring the semantic relatedness of the loanwords.

Since the material is from the Culture and Entertainment sections of the newspapers, it was decided to divide this category into the following semantic fields: Arts, Music, Cinema and Show business. Some of the texts were found to contain several standard forms belonging to the fields of Sports and Technology, which I added to the analysis. A problem occurred with some words which fell under none of the six categories, e.g. (Ukr.) *цунами* [tsunami] <



*tsunami*, (Rus.) *клаустрофобический* [klaustrofobicheskij] < *claustrophobic*, and some other which can be referred to at least two semantic fields at the same time, e.g. *бестселер* [bestseler] < *best seller*, which can characterize a bestselling CD album (Music), or a film (Cinema), or a book. Such items are placed in the group titled Other.

The distribution of loanwords according to their semantics is made on the standard form level. This level was chosen with regard to the fact that each element itself carries a certain meaning, which may automatically identify semantic belonging of its descended lexemes. Accordingly, I consider that this level fits to be divided into the following fields.

Table 5.7 Semantic classification within the four corpora (standard-form level)

Semantic field	Vysokyi Zamok (Ukr.)		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Ukr.)		Ukraïns'ka Pravda (Rus.)		Donbass (Rus.)	
Arts	3	6.5 %	5	11.6 %	5	11.4 %	3	5.1 %
Music	7	15.2 %	4	9.3 %	4	9.1 %	13	24.5 %
Show business	9	19.6 %	4	9.3 %	6	13.6 %	11	20.8 %
Sports	7	15.2 %	3	7 %	1	2.8 %	1	1.9 %
Technology	3	6.5 %	13	30.2 %	8	18.2 %	10	18.9 %
Cinema	1	2.8 %	0	0 %	4	9.1 %	3	5.7 %
Other	16	32.6 %	14	32.6 %	16	36.4 %	12	22.6 %
Total	46	100 %	43	100 %	44	100 %	53	100 %

From the table, one may notice more similar numbers when the newspaper type is taken as a starting point. The two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda share rather similar numbers in the field of Arts (11,6 % and 11,4 %) and Music (9,3 % and 9,1 %). However, the Russian part of the edition makes use of standard forms from Cinema (9,1 %) and Show business (13,6 %) more often than the Ukrainian part, which puts greater emphasis on Technology (30,2 %) and Sports (7%). The given numbers underlines the variety of texts within the edition.

The common features of the middle-market newspapers are the rather low numbers of loanwords from the semantic fields of Arts (6,5 % and 5,1 %) and Cinema (2,8 % and 5,7 %), and the relatively high percents from Show business (19,6 % and 20,8 %) and Music (15,2 % and 24,5 %). However, Vysokyi Zamok and Donbass differ in the use of words from the fields of Sports (15,2% vs. 1,9 %) and Technology (6,5 % vs. 18,9 %).

When comparing loanwords according to their semantics, degrees of integration and levels of necessity, it turns out that the largest share of necessary items are found in the semantic fields which are the most extended ones, at least, in one of the sub-corpora: Music (Donbass), Show business (Vysokyi Zamok, Donbass), Technology (the two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda, Donbass). This points to the fact that the loanwords which belong to these semantic domains are the least probable to have counterparts in the language, such as words denoting styles of music, music releases (Music), means of communication (Technology), etc. Absence of equivalents and/or difficulty in translation in conveying such concepts contribute to their quicker integration in the receiving languages and strengthens their status as *necessary*. This fact may explain a high number of necessary loanwords in Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok. The almost equal number of fully-integrated and semi-integrated items in the middle-market newspapers can be explained by the fact that both of them consider the topics which relate to realities that are more recent additions in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment (e.g. (Ukr.) *музеп* [tyzer] < *teaser*, (Rus.) *сингл* [singl] < *single*, etc.), and thus some of the loans (in spite of their necessity) perhaps require some more time to further integrate in the languages.

The highest rate of words connected with Arts and a relatively high number within Cinema is noticed in the two parts of Ukraïns'ka Pravda (except the latter in Ukrainian part of the edition). Items which belong to these groups are expressed by standard forms which, in most cases, have equivalents in Ukrainian and Russian, and which therefore may experience a slower process of integration in the languages. This may be the reason for the quite considerable number of luxury loanwords and semi-integrated items found in Ukraïns'ka Pravda. The semantic field of Technology seems to be the most extensive in the newspaper, sometimes it shares with Donbass. This fact may clarify why Ukraïns'ka Pravda shared more loanwords with Donbass than with Vysokyi Zamok.

The examination of the given fields may only partially explain the results of the investigation of loanwords from different angles, since the category of Other, which constitutes nearly the third part of all the loanwords (apart from in Donbass), was not taken into consideration due to its variety of semantic fields within the corpus.

The investigation of semantic fields conducted in this section indicates that English has made an impact in all spheres of activity, since there are English loanwords in each of the considered spheres in both languages. The distribution of anglicisms in the semantic fields is difficult to analyze according to the language criterion, at least in terms of such limited corpus

as this one. The hypothesis is not justified, as far as there is no big difference between Ukrainian and Russian. On the other hand, the analysis emphasizes that the newspaper type is the most decisive determinant in the use of English loans in Ukraine, at least in the sphere of Culture and Entertainment.

# Conclusion and ideas for further research

The process of borrowing, as a consequence of the contact between two languages, is one of the most significant means of lexical enrichment. Recently, in the context of globalization, the contacts between English and other (even remote) languages have been strengthened. The contact between English and Ukrainian and Russian, specifically after the dissolution of the Soviet Union, has resulted in an undeniable influence of the former on the two latter.

The aim of the research was to find out which of the major languages in the country, Ukrainian or Russian, is more inclined to adoption of English loanwords, whereas the second objective of the study was to analyze what factors contribute to the distribution of anglicisms in the two languages.

The hypothesis of the research paper, which predicted a bigger influence and, thus, more anglicisms in Ukrainian than in Russian, is contradicted by the findings. The examination of Ukrainian media discourse, based on the comparative method, shows that both Ukrainian and Russian have felt the impact of English more or less equally. The analysis of loanwords from different angles confirms this evidence.

According to the findings of the study, the Ukrainian and Russian parts of *highbrow Ukraïns'ka Pravda* are similar in numbers of standard forms, lexemes and word forms (with only one more lexeme and two more word forms in the Russian part) and present almost identical proportions on the three levels in each of the parts. Minor differences in ratios are found between the middle-market newspapers, in which the Russian-language Donbass demonstrates a somewhat higher frequency of loanwords. However, the higher rate of English standard forms in Donbass might be explained by the fact that the given corpus is slightly bigger than the other three. The number of lexemes and word forms per standard form is similar in Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok.

The findings of the investigation show that influence of English is the same in both languages. The analysis detected a slightly larger number of loanwords in the Russian-language corpora is in the opposite direction of what the hypothesis predicted. However, such a small difference in the number of words is due only to one of the newspapers, namely Donbass, whose corpus is slightly larger than the others. Therefore, a minor difference in size of the material is not

likely to indicate a real difference between the languages. To answer the question on the influence of English on Ukrainian and Russian with more certainty, a larger corpus is required.

The distribution of loanwords within the four corpora is largely predetermined by the newspaper type than the language. The main difference between the newspapers is seen on the word form level (120 in Vysokyi Zamok and 153 in Donbass, whereas in Ukraïns'ka Pravda - 84 (Ukr.) and 86 (Rus.), and a minor difference on the lexeme level (62 and 76 vs. 53 and 54, respectively). The number of standard forms is more similar in numbers which means that the rate of lexemes and word forms per standard form in the two middle-market newspapers is higher than the serious newspaper.

Another aspect of the analysis is the reasons for using loanwords in Russian and Ukrainian. The motivation behind the use of new borrowings is commonly the same (brevity, accuracy and variety of expression), though the distribution of luxury and necessary loans differs between the two types of the newspapers. The analysis reveals a surprisingly larger number of luxury loans in the serious newspaper than in the middle-market editions, in which the number of necessary words predominates.

The penetration of English items into Ukrainian and Russian presupposes their participation in various lexico-semantic processes so that to be able to function in the two languages according to their norms. The examination of loanwords according to the degrees of integration shows that Ukraïns'ka Pravda contains a higher number of fully-integrated words. In comparison to Ukraïns'ka Pravda, due to the phonetic restrictions, many loanwords in Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok, experience difficulties in the process of integration. These words seem to inflect only on the morphological level, and therefore quantitatively contributed to the group of semi-integrated units. This caused an almost equal division of words into the groups of semi- and fully-integrated words in these editions.

The material within the domain of Culture is not homogenous in its semantics as far as it comprises many loanwords from other semantic fields, not only those associated with the Culture domain. Another problem is that a group of borrowed anglicisms are used in words which belong to several categories. The classification of loanwords according to their semantics in this study includes only a few fields, and consequently the analysis is a very approximate one. It reveals that the semantic fields which have been recently influenced the

most are Music, Show business and Technology. Music and Show business are the most extended domains in Donbass and Vysokyi Zamok (apart the group of Other), while the loans in field of Technology are frequent in the three corpora with the highest rate in the Ukrainian part of Ukraïns'ka Pravda. The category of Other, which constitutes nearly the third part of all English elements found in the four corpora, is not analyzed separately, and thus may hide more information about semantic distribution of loanwords. In order to present a complete picture of the analysis of English loans in semantic fields within the two languages, a more detailed analysis and more data is needed.

The findings of the given study point to one main conclusion: the distribution of English loanwords in Ukrainian and Russian depends, first and foremost, on the type of the newspaper. Such an outcome of the investigation contradicts my hypothesis about more loanwords in Ukrainian than Russian. In accordance with the results, supported by the comparative analysis of old borrowings, I may state that the language is not the principal factor which determines the use of loanwords in Ukrainian media discourse, but the type of the media itself. Both languages, Ukrainian and Russian, basically share the same level of adaption and usage of anglicisms. Nevertheless, it is important to note, that this study is rather limited and its results, therefore, cannot be generalized.

The use of English loanwords in the discourse of Ukrainian media testifies to the *natural* development of the languages under the pressure of globalization, which makes it impossible for the languages to function in isolation. The sphere of Culture and Entertainment, as well as many other domains in the Ukrainian reality, experiences the lexical impact of English; however, the influx of English loans is not seen as a pervasive phenomenon in the linguistic landscape in Ukraine. Though number of new borrowings is relatively high, their presence does not seem, at least currently, to cause replacement or disappearance of Ukrainian or Russian words. In most cases, the use of loanwords in the languages is justified by the absence of precise or one-word native equivalents, and otherwise it is observed as an alternative means of expressing thoughts and ideas which could be aimed to avoid monotony in the material.

The thesis has attempted to investigate the impact of English on Ukrainian and Russian and demonstrate the employment of English loans in the two Slavic languages on the basis of samples of written language. Further research would benefit from an investigation of spoken Russian and Ukrainian, both to get a fuller picture and because the spoken language might be

more open to new words and more likely to speed up the process of integration of loanwords than its written variant. Probably, a separate study investigating the word classes of new borrowings would be useful as well.

The analysis on the distribution of English loanwords in the domain of Culture and Entertainment may also serve as a starting point for further research on other spheres of activity in Ukraine, and be helpful in comparison of their findings, since this has not been done in the current research paper. An interesting idea would also be to compare of the use of English loanwords (within a given domain) with uses in other Slavic and non-Slavic languages, and to explore whether the English impact on them is similarly strong.

Another important limitation of this study is the lack of research on opinions and attitudes of Ukrainians towards the use of anglicisms in the languages, to estimate the psychological integration of the words. This would enable me to find out which people are most likely to use foreignisms and for what purposes, taking into consideration such criteria as age, gender, social status, language of preference, and location of the respondents. The viewpoints of Ukrainian people on the question of loanwords would also have provided a better understanding of possible dangers to the Ukrainian and Russian languages under the impact of global English.

# References

- Akademik (2000-2014) *Slovar' lingvisticheskikh terminov: Neskloniaemye suschestvitel'nye* [Internet]. Available from:  
<http://dic.academic.ru/dic.nsf/lingvistic/864/%D0%BD%D0%B5%D1%81%D0%BA%D0%BB%D0%BE%D0%BD%D1%8F%D0%B5%D0%BC%D1%8B%D0%B5>.  
[Accessed 8 April 2014].
- Ammon, U. and McConnell, G. D. (2002) *English as an academic language in Europe: a survey of its use in teaching*. Frankfurt am Main, P. Lang
- Arlotto, A. (1972) *Introduction to Historical Linguistics*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin.
- Baker, C. and Prys Jones, S. (1998) *Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters
- Barber, C.L. (1964) *Linguistic Change in Present-day English*. Edinburgh, Oliver & Boyd.
- Barber, C.L. (1993) *The English language: a historical introduction*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Basiuk, V. (2000) Ukraine: toward a viable national ethos. In: Wolchik, Sharon L. and A. Vladimir Zviglyanich, eds. *Ukraine: the search for a national identity*. Rowman and Littlefield, Lanham, Md., pp.31-48
- Bator, M. (2010) *Obsolete Scandinavian loanwords in English*. Frankfurt am Main, Peter Lang
- Bilaniuk, L. (2005) *Contested tongues: language politics and cultural correction in Ukraine*. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University Press.
- Bilaniuk, L. (2006) Language in the balance: the politics of non-accommodation in bilingual Ukrainian-Russian television shows. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 201, pp.105-133. Available from doi: 10.1515/IJSL.2010.006. [ Accessed 07.12.2013].
- Boikiv I. et al. ed. (1996) *Slovnyk chuzhomovnyh sliv*. Kyïv, Muzei Ivana Honchara, Rodovid.



- Breiter, M. (1997) What is the difference between “shashlyk” and “barbecue”? *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology* [Internet], 5 (1), pp. 85-100. Available from: doi:10.1080/0907676X.1997.9961302. [Accessed 29 November 2013]
- Burns, A. and Coffin, C. (2001) *Analysing English in a global context: A reader*. London, Routledge in association with Macquarie University and the Open University.
- Cenoz, J. (2011) The increasing role of English in Basque education. In: de Hower, A. and A. Wilton, eds. *English in Europe today: sociocultural and educational perspectives*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins, pp. 15-30.
- Cherniak, V.D. ed. (2002), *Russkii iazyk i kul'tura rechi*. Moskva, Vysshaia shkola.
- Chernikova, L.F. and Smilyk, T.I. (2009) Anhlitsyzmy v suchasnii ukraïns'kii movi. Kul'tura narodov Prichernomor'ia, 152, pp.129-133, Available from: <http://dspace.nbuv.gov.ua/handle/123456789/34810> [Accessed 13 May 2014].
- Croft, W. (2000) *Explaining language change: an evolutionary approach*. Harlow, Longman.
- Crystal, D. (2003) *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Danesi, M. and Rocci, A. (2009) *Global Linguistics: An Introduction*. Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter.
- Daulton, Frank E. (2008) *Japan's built-in lexicon of English-based loanwords*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.
- Dovring, K. (1997) *English as lingua franca: double talk in global persuasion*. Westport, Conn., Praeger.
- Dröschel, Y. (2011) *Lingua franca English: the role of simplification and transfer*. Bern, Peter Lang.
- Dyolog O.S. (2011) Protsess adaptatsii novitnikh anhliiskykh zapozychen' u suchasnomu ukraïns'komu movlenni. Available from: [http://sn-philolsocom.crimea.edu/arhiv/2011/uch24\\_42fn/018.pdf](http://sn-philolsocom.crimea.edu/arhiv/2011/uch24_42fn/018.pdf). [Accessed 7 November 2014].

- Ehret, C. (2011) *History and the testimony of language*. Berkeley, Calif., University of California Press.
- Fasold, R. and Connor-Linton J. (2006) *An Introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Fedorets', S. (1997) Mova reklamy jak dzherelo popovnennia inshomovnoï leksyky. *Linhvistuchi doslidzhennia: Naukovyy visnyk*, 3, pp. 101-104.
- Fedorets', S. (2002) Movni novoutvorennia: zapozychennia chi zmishchennia. *Naukovii visnyk*, 5, 104-106.
- Fournier, A. (2012) *Forging Rights in a New Democracy: Ukrainian Students Between Freedom and Justice*. University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Furiassi, C., Pulcini V. and Gonzáles F.R. eds. (2012) *Anglicization of European lexis*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins.
- Galstyan, A. (2012) Anglicisms in Armenian. Processes of adaption. In: Furiassi, C., Pulcini V. and F.R. Gonzáles, eds. *Anglicization of European lexis*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins.
- Gardani, F. (2013) *Dynamics of morphological productivity: the evolution of noun classes from Latin to Italian*. Leiden, Brill.
- Gentsch, K. (2004) *English Borrowings in German Newspaper Language: Motivations, Frequencies, and Types, on the basis of the Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, Muenchner Merkur, and Bild*. Thesis, Swarthmore College.
- Goble, P. A. (2000) Establishing Independence in an Independent world. In: Wolchik, S. L., and Zviglyanich, V. A., eds., *Ukraine: the search for a national identity*. Lanham, Md., Rowman and Littlefield, pp. 107-120.
- Goodman, B. (2009) The ecology of language in Ukraine. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics* [Internet], 24/2, pp. 19-39. Available from: <http://www.gse.upenn.edu/sites/gse.upenn.edu.wpel/files/archives/v24/Goodman.pdf> [Accessed 9 May 2014].

- Görlach, M. (2003) *English words abroad*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Graddol, D. (2001) English in the future. In: Burns, A. and C. Coffin, eds. *Analysing English in a global context: A reader*. London, Routledge in association with Macquarie University and the Open University, pp.26-37.
- Graedler, A.-L. (1998) *Morphological, semantic and functional aspects of English lexical borrowings in Norwegian*. Oslo, University of Oslo Scandinavian University Press.
- Greenbaum, S. (1985) *The English language today*. Oxford, Pergamon Institute of English.
- Guardiano, C., Favilla, Elena M. and Calaresu, E. (2007) Stereotypes about English as the language of science. *AILA Review* [Internet], 20 (1), pp. 28-52. Available from doi: 10.1075/aila.20.05gua. [Accessed 3 April 2014].
- Haspelmath, M. and Tadmor, U. (2009) *Loanwords in the world's languages: a comparative handbook*. Berlin, De Gruyter Mouton.
- Haugen, E. (1950) The Analysis of Linguistic Borrowing, *Language: Journal of the Linguistic Society of America* [Internet], 26(2), pp.210-231. Available from doi: 10.2307/410058. [Accessed 11 December 2013].
- Herman J. de Vries Jr. (2008) Dutch: Is it threatened by English? In: Rosenhouse, J. and R. Kowner, eds. *Globally speaking: motives for adopting English vocabulary in other languages*, Clevedon, UK, Multilingual Matters.
- Hiltunen, R. *et al.* eds. (1993) *English far and wide: a Festschrift for Inna Koskeniemi*: 24 January, 1993, Turku, Turun Yliopisto.
- Hirst, D. and di Cristo A. (1998) *Intonation Systems: a Survey of Twenty Languages*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Hock, H.H. and Brian D.J. (1996) *Language history, language change, and language relationship: an introduction to historical and comparative linguistics*. Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter.

- Hoffmann, Z. (2011) *Ways of the world's words: language contact in the age of globalization*. Bern, Peter Lang.
- Hurko, O.V. (2013) *Novitni anhlitsyzmy v hudozhnii literaturi* [Internet]. Available from: [http://sn-philolsocom.crimea.edu/arhiv/2013/uch\\_26\\_1fil/002\\_gurk.pdf](http://sn-philolsocom.crimea.edu/arhiv/2013/uch_26_1fil/002_gurk.pdf). [Accessed 25 May 2013].
- Jackson, H. and Zé Amvela, E. 2007, *Words meaning, and vocabulary: an introduction to modern English lexicology*, London: Continuum.
- Johansson, S. and Graedler, A.-L. (2002) *Rocka, hipt og snacksy: om engelsk i norsk språk og samfunn*. Kristiansand, Høyskoleforlaget.
- Joseph, M. and Ramani, E. (2006), English in the world does not mean English everywhere: the case for multilingualism in the ELT/ESL profession. In: Rudby, R. and M. Saraceni, eds. *English in the world: global rules, global roles*. London, Continuum, pp. 186-199.
- Kachru, B. B. and Nelson, C. L. (2001) World Englishes In: Burns, A. and C. Coffin, eds. *Analysing English in a global context: A reader*. London, Routledge in association with Macquarie University and the Open University, pp. 9-25.
- Kachru, B. B. eds. (1992) *The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures*. University of Illinois Press.
- Karpilovs'ka, Ye. A. (2008) Tendentsiï rozvytku suchasnoho ukraïns'koho leksykonu: chynnyky stabilizatsiï innovatsii. *Ukraiïns'ka mova*, nr.1, p. 24-35.
- Katamba, F. (2005) *English words: structure, history, usage*. London, Routledge.
- Kemmer, S. (2013) Loanwords. Major Periods of Borrowing in the History of English. [Internet]. Available from: [www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/Words/loanwords.html](http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/Words/loanwords.html) [Accessed 28 September 2013].
- Khoutyz I. (2010) The pragmatics of anglicisms in modern Russian discourse. In: Facchinetti R., Crystal D. and B. Seidlhofer eds. *From International to Local English - and Back Again*. Bern, Peter Lang., pp. 197-208.

- Kostomarov, V.G. (1994) *Yazykovoï vkus epohi: iz nabliudenii nad rechevoy praktikoy mass-media*. Moskva, Pedagogika-Press.
- Koval' M.P. (2000) Osnovni aspekty ukraïns'koï naukovo-tekhnichnoï terminolohii z informatyky. *Visnyk: Problemy ukraïns'koï terminolohii*. L'viv, L'vivs'ka politekhnika, 402, pp. 420-428.
- Kowner, R. and Dalot-Bul, M. (2008) Japanese: the dialectic relationships between “westernness” and “japaneseness” as reflected in English loanwords. In: Rosenhouse, J. and R. Kowner, eds. *Globally speaking: motives for adopting English vocabulary in other languages*. Clevedon, UK, Multilingual Matters.
- Krasnoboka, N. and Brants K. (2006) Old and new media, old and new politics? In: Voltmer, K., eds. *Mass media and political communication in new democracies*. London, Routledge, pp. 92-112.
- Krouglov, A. (2002) War and Peace: Ukrainian and Russian. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 1 (2), pp. 221 –239. Available from: doi: 10.1075/jlp.1.2.04kro [Accessed 5 July 2014].
- Krysin, L.P. (2008) *Slovo v sovremennykh tekstakh i slovariakh: ocherki o russkoi leksike i leksikografii*. Moskva, Znak.
- Kulyk, V. (2010) Ideologies of language use in post-Soviet Ukrainian media. *International Journal of the Sociology of language*, 201, Berlin, pp. 79-104.
- Kulyk, V. (2010) Ideologies of language use in post-Soviet Ukrainian media. *International Journal of the Sociology of language*, 201, Berlin, pp. 79-104.
- Kushnaryova, M.B. (2009) *Osnovni tendentsii rozvytku masovoï kul'tury v suchasniï Ukraïni v konteksti hlobalizatsii* [Internet]. Available from: [http://culturalstudies.in.ua/zv\\_2009-7.php](http://culturalstudies.in.ua/zv_2009-7.php) [Accessed 13 March 2014]
- Kykot', V.M. and Hrytsenko, I.Yu. (no date) *Vzhyvannia anhlitsyzmiv v tekstakh suchasnoi ukraïns'koi presy ta reklamy*. Available from: [http://www.rusnauka.com/3\\_ANR\\_2012/Economics/6\\_99026.doc.htm](http://www.rusnauka.com/3_ANR_2012/Economics/6_99026.doc.htm) [Accessed 26 March 2014]

Language Education Policy Profiles (2008 – 2011) Language Education Policy Profile:

*Ukraine* [Internet]. Available from: [http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Profils\\_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Profils_en.asp)  
[Accessed 28 October 2013].

Lechin, I.V. and Petrov, F.N. ed. (1996) *Slovar' inostrannykh slov v russkom yazyke*. Moskva, Junves.

Leleka T. (2008) Zapozychennia z anhliiskoï u suspil'no-politychnii ta ekonomichnii leksytsi ukraïns'koï i rosiis'koï mov: funktsional'no-stylistychnyi aspekt. *Naukovi zapysky (Filolohichni nauky)*, 81 (1). Kirovohrad, KDPU im. V. Vynnychenka., pp. 343-348.

Lemkin, R. (1953) Soviet Genocide in the Ukraine. In: Luciuk, L.Y., eds. *Holodomor: Reflections on the Great Famine of 1932–1933 in Soviet Ukraine*. Kingston, The Kashtan Press. Available from:  
[http://www.uccla.ca/SOVIET\\_GENOCIDE\\_IN\\_THE\\_UKRAINE.pdf](http://www.uccla.ca/SOVIET_GENOCIDE_IN_THE_UKRAINE.pdf) [Accessed 17 May 2014]

Leung, C. and Street, B. V. ed. (2012) *English a changing medium for education*. Bristol, Multilingual Matters.

MacKenzie, I. (2012) Fair play to them: Proficiency in English and types of borrowings. In: Furiassi, C., Pulcini V. and F.R. Gonzáles, eds. *Anglicization of European lexis*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins. pp. 27-42.

Magocsi, P. R. (2010) *A History of Ukraine: The Land and Its Peoples*. Toronto, University of Toronto Press

Makarova, V. ed. (2012) *Russian Language Studies in North America: New Perspectives from Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*. London: Anthem Press

Marinova, E.V. (2008) *Inoiazychnyie slova v russkoi rechi kontsa XX-nachala XXI v.: problemy osvoeniia i funktsionirovaniia*. Moskva, Èl'pis.

Masenko, L. (2009) Language situation in Ukraine: sociolinguistic analysis. In Besters-Dilger, J. and A. Kratochvil, eds. *Language Policy and Language Situation in Ukraine: Analysis and Recommendations*, Vol.201, Peter Lang, pp.101-138.

- Maximova, T.V. (2007) English loan words in contemporary Russian speech. *Vestnik Volgogradskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta (Yazykoznanie)*, 6, pp. 79-84  
Available from: <http://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/english-loan-words-in-contemporary-russian-speech>. [Accessed 05.04.2014].
- McKay S. L. (2006) EIL Curriculum Development. In: Rudby, R. and M. Saraceni, eds. *English in the world: global rules, global roles*. London, Continuum, pp. 114-129.
- McKishnie, A. (2012) Language Revitalization in Ukraine: Geo-Culturally Determined Success. *Verges: Germanic & Slavic Studies in Review*, 1 (1), pp.24-32. Available from: <http://journals.uvic.ca/index.php/verges/article/view/10854/3071>
- Medvediv, A.R. (2012) Yaki chuzhozemni zapozychennia potribni ukrains'kii movi? *Problemy ukrains'koï terminologii* [Internet], pp. 13-16. Available from: [http://tc.terminology.lp.edu.ua/TK\\_Zbirnyk\\_2012/TK\\_Zbirnyk\\_2012\\_1\\_medvediv.htm](http://tc.terminology.lp.edu.ua/TK_Zbirnyk_2012/TK_Zbirnyk_2012_1_medvediv.htm). [Accessed 12 February 2014]
- Mel'nyk, S. and Chernychko, S. (2010) *Etnichne i movne rozmayittya Ukraïny. Analitychnyy ohliad sytuatsii*. Uzhhorod, PoliPrint. Available from: [http://www.kmf.uz.ua/hun114/images/konyvek/melnyik\\_csernicksko.pdf](http://www.kmf.uz.ua/hun114/images/konyvek/melnyik_csernicksko.pdf) [Accessed 7 October 2013]
- Muromtseva, O. H. (1985) *Rozvytok leksyky literaturnoi movy u druhii polovyni XIX – na pochatku XX st.* Kharkiv, Vyscha shkola.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (2006) *Multiple voices: an introduction to bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Nash, W. (1992) *An uncommon tongue: the uses and resources of English*. London, Routledge.
- Olszański, T. A. (2012) The language issue in Ukraine: an attempt at a new perspective, *OSW Studies*, 40, pp. 12-13. Available from: [http://www.osw.waw.pl/sites/default/files/prace\\_40\\_en.pdf](http://www.osw.waw.pl/sites/default/files/prace_40_en.pdf). [Accessed 2 April 2014].
- Onysko, A. (2007) *Anglicisms in German: borrowing, lexical productivity and written codeswitching*. Berlin, Walter de Gruyter.

- Ostler, N. (2011) *The last lingua franca: the rise and fall of world languages*. London, Penguin Books.
- Pavlenko, A. (2010) Linguistic landscape of Kyiv, Ukraine: A diachronic study. In: Shohamy, E., Ben Rafael E. and Barni C., eds. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 133-152.
- Pennycook, A. (2001) English in the world/the world in English In: Burns, A. and C. Coffin, eds. *Analysing English in a global context: A reader*. London, Routledge in association with Macquarie University and the Open University, pp. 78-92.
- Phillipson, R. (2009) *Linguistic imperialism continued*. New York, Routledge.
- Polishchuk, N. (2012) Mystetska terminolohichna leksyka v hazetnomu teksti. *Visnyk Natsional'noho universytetu "L'vivs'ka Politekhnik"*, 733, pp. 216-222. Available from:  
[http://tc.terminology.lp.edu.ua/TK\\_Wisnyk733/TK\\_wisnyk733\\_4\\_polishchuk.htm](http://tc.terminology.lp.edu.ua/TK_Wisnyk733/TK_wisnyk733_4_polishchuk.htm)  
 [Accessed 12 February 2014].
- Popova, N.O. and Petrova, O.B. (2013) Aspekty zasvoiennia anhlitsyzmiv u suchasni movi novitnyoho period. *Linhvistychni doslidzhennia*, 35, pp. 44-48. Available from:  
[http://nbuv.gov.ua/j-pdf/znphnpu\\_lingv\\_2013\\_35\\_10.pdf](http://nbuv.gov.ua/j-pdf/znphnpu_lingv_2013_35_10.pdf) [Accessed 25 July 2014].
- Postanova no.55 Kabinetu Ministriv Ukraïny (January 27, 2010) [Resolution of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine ] Pro vporuadkuvannia transliteratsii ukraïns'koho alfavitu latynytseiu. Kyïv. Available from: <http://zakon1.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/55-2010-%D0%BF>
- Radchuk, V. (2002) Mova v Ukraïni: stan, funktsii, perspektvy. *Movoznavstvo*, 2-3, pp. 39-45.
- Radchuk, V. (2008) Europe's crossroads: what language will Ukraine use in 2101? How to translate into interacting languages? *Movoznavstvo*, 22, pp.155-177.
- Romaine, S. (1992) English: from village to global village. In: Machan, T. W. and C. T. Scott, eds. *English in its social contexts: Essays in historical sociolinguistics*. New York, Oxford University Press, pp. 253-260.



- Rosenhouse, J. and Kowner R. (2008) *Globally speaking: motives for adopting English vocabulary in other languages*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.
- Rudby, R. and Saraceni, M. (2006) An interview with Tom McArthur. In: Rudby, R. and M. Saraceni, eds. *English in the world: global rules, global roles*. London, Continuum, pp. 21-31.
- Rudnytzky, L. (2005) "The undiscovered realm: notes on the nature of Ukrainian literature. In: Hayoz, N. and Andrej N. Lushnycky, eds. *Ukraine at a crossroads*, Bern, Peter Lang, pp. 215-232.
- Ryazanova-Clarke, L. and Wade, T. (1999) *The Russian Language Today*. London, Routledge.
- Sasse, H.-J. (1992) Language decay and contact-induced change: similarities and differences. In Brenzinger M., eds. *Language death: factual and theoretical explorations with special reference to East Africa*. Berlin, Mouton de Gruyter, pp.59-80.
- Seals, C. (2009) From Russification to Ukrainisation: A Survey of Language Politics in Ukraine. *The Undergraduate Journal on Slavic and East/Central European Studies*, pp. 1-10. Available from: [http://www.academia.edu/211157/From\\_Russification\\_to\\_Ukrainisation\\_A\\_Survey\\_of\\_Language\\_Politics\\_in\\_Ukraine](http://www.academia.edu/211157/From_Russification_to_Ukrainisation_A_Survey_of_Language_Politics_in_Ukraine) [Accessed 11 January 2014].
- Seltén, B. (1993) *Ny svengelsk ordbok*. Lund, Studentlitteratur.
- Shumlianskyi, S. (2010) Conflicting abstractions: Language groups in language politics in Ukraine, *International Journal of the Sociology of language*, 201, Berlin, de Gruyter Mouton, pp. 135-161.
- Stanlaw, J. (2004) *Japanese English: Language and culture contact*. Hong Kong, Hong Kong University Press.
- Styshov O.A. (2008) Hlobalizatsyni tendentsii u slovotvorennia ukraïns'koï i rosiis'koï mov kintsia XX – pochatku XXI st. *Linhvistyka*, 1 (13), pp.277-288.

- Styshov, O. A. (2011) Slovtvorni hnizda z vershynamy-neolohizmamy v suchasnykh ukrains'kii i rosiiskii movakh. *Mova. Kul'tura. Vzaïemorozuminnia: zbirnyk naukovykh prats'* [Internet], 1, pp. 19-33. Available from: [http://elibrary.kubg.edu.ua/2188/1/STYSCHOV\\_IF\\_GI.pdf](http://elibrary.kubg.edu.ua/2188/1/STYSCHOV_IF_GI.pdf) updated. [Accessed 12 November 2013]
- Styshov, O.A. (2012) Osnovni tendentsii rozvytku leksychnoho skladu ukrains'koï movy pochatku XXI stolittia. *Visnyk Zaporiz'koho natsional'noho univertytetu*, pp. 406-415. Available from: <http://elibrary.kubg.edu.ua/2198/>. [Accessed 5 January 2014].
- Svartvik, J. and Leech, G. N. (2006) *English: one tongue, many voices*. Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Taylor, I. and Taylor, M. M. (1995) *Writing and Literacy in Chinese, Korean and Japanese*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins.
- Todd, L. and Hancock, I. (1986) *International English usage*. London, Croom Helm.
- Ukrains'kyi pravopys (2006-2014) *Pravopys sliv inshomovnoho pohodzhennia: Vidminiuvannia sliv inshomovnoho pohodzhennia* [Internet]. Available from: <http://pravopys.kiev.ua/pravopys.aspx?SectionID=175>. [Accessed 8 April 2014].
- Verspoor, M. H., de Bot, K. and van Rein, E. (2011) English as a foreign language. The role of out-of-school language input. In: de Hower, A. and Wilton A., eds. *English in Europe today: sociocultural and educational perspectives*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins.
- Ward, D. (1986) The English contribution to Russian. In: Viereck W. and W.D. Bald, eds. *English in contact with other languages: studies in honour of Broder Carstensen on the occasion of his 60th birthday*. Budapest, Akademiai Kiado, pp. 307-331.
- Weinreich, U. (1953) *Languages in contact: findings and problems*. New York, Linguistic Circle of New York.
- Wexler, P.N. (1974) *Purism and Language: A Study in Modern Ukrainian and Belorussian Nationalism (1840-1967)*. Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

- Yelenevskaya, M. (2008) Russian: From Socialist Realism to Reality Show. In Rosenhouse, J. and R. Kowner, eds. *Globally speaking: motives for adopting English vocabulary in other languages*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 98-120.
- Zaliznyak, H. (2009) Language orientations and the civilization choice for Ukrainians. In: Besters-Dilger, J. and A. Kratochvil, eds. *Language Policy and Language Situation in Ukraine: Analysis and Recommendations*, Vol.201, Peter Lang, pp.139-174.
- Zawawi, S. (1979) *Loan Words and Their Effect on the Classification of Swahili Nominals*. The Netherlands, Brill Archive.
- Zhurzhenko, T. (2002), "Language Politics" in Contemporary Ukraine: Nationalism and Identity Formation, *IWM Junior Visiting Fellows Conferences*, 12 (2), pp.1-24.  
Available from: <http://www.iwm.at/wp-content/uploads/jc-12-02.pdf> [Accessed 7 April 2014].